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TWO THOUSAND QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ABOUT THE WAR

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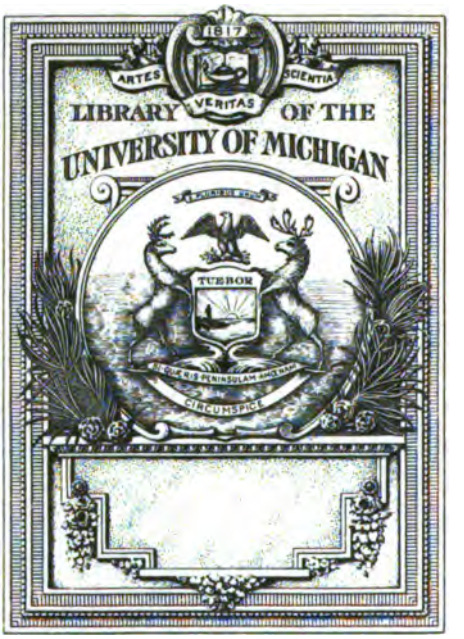
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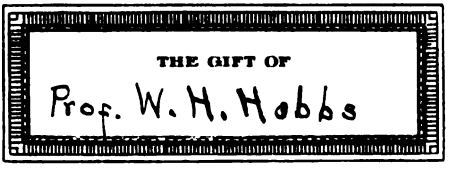
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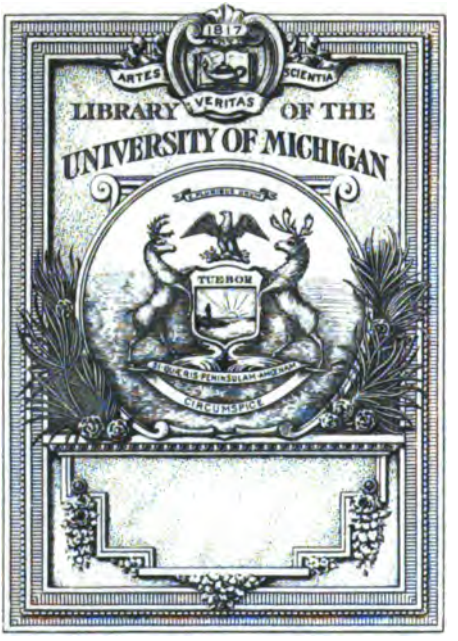
Prof. W. H. Hobbs



THE GIFT OF
Prof. W. H. Hobbs

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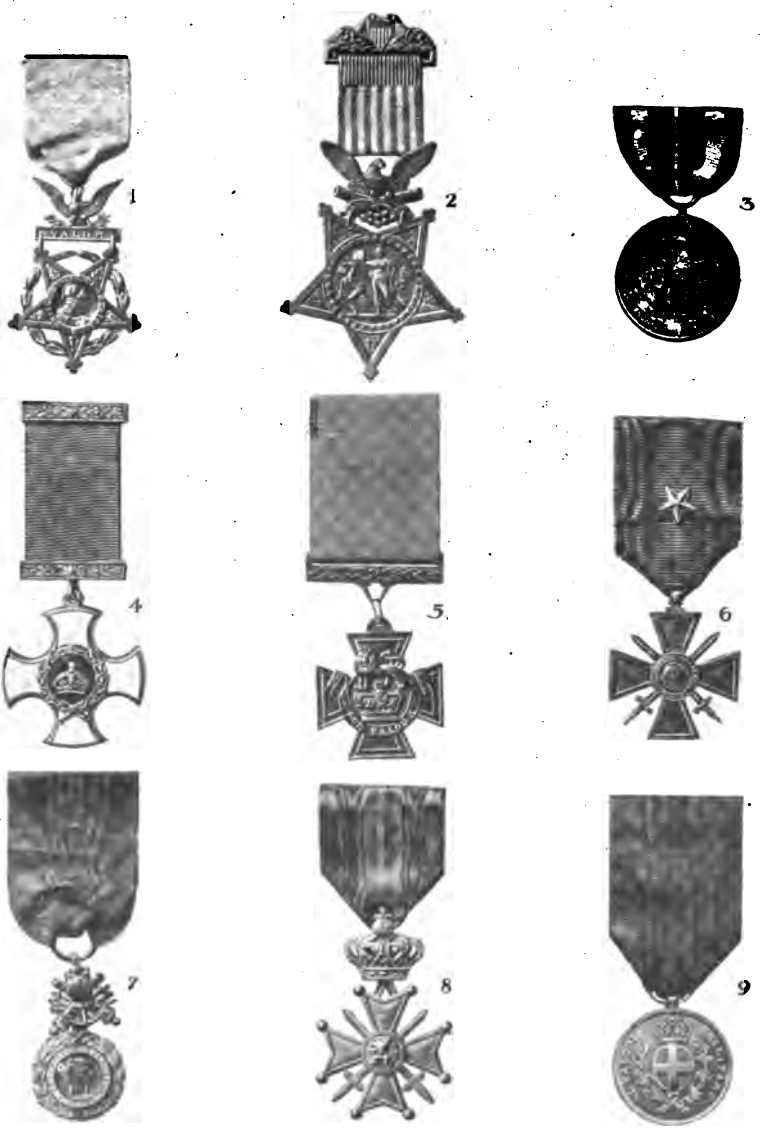
MEDALS OF THE ALLIES



1. UNITED STATES—
   Medal of Honor, Army
2. UNITED STATES—
   Medal of Honor, Navy
3. UNITED STATES—
   Certificate of Merit Medal
4. GREAT BRITAIN—
   Distinguished Service Order
5. GREAT BRITAIN—
   Victoria Cross
6. FRANCE—
   Croix de Guerre (Cross of War)
7. FRANCE—
   Medaille Militaire (Military Medal)
8. BELGIUM—
   Order of Leopold
9. ITALY—Medal of Military Valor

UNIV. OF H.

TWO THOUSAND QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ABOUT THE WAR

A CATECHISM OF THE METHODS OF FIGHTING, TRAVELLING AND LIVING; OF THE ARMIES, NAVIES AND AIR FLEETS; OF THE PERSONALITIES, POLITICS AND GEOGRAPHY OF THE WARRING COUNTRIES

WITH SEVENTEEN NEW WAR MAPS
AND
A PRONOUNCING DICTIONARY OF NAMES

NEW YORK
GEORGE H. DORAN COMPANY
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THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS COMPANY

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Gift
Prof. W. H. White
2-16-33

INTRODUCTION

THERE was probably a time, at the beginning of this war, when most of us in the United States thought the Ukraine was a musical instrument. At least, we were so ignorant of the peoples and the problems of Europe that we had little understanding of the conflict, and little concern with the fundamentals of settlement. Those days have gone forever.

Whether we like it or not, we are now citizens of the world. By virtue of a struggle against military despotism, which has involved us as it has involved nearly all the civilized nations of the earth, we are compelled to do our part in curing the world maladies out of which this great plague of war has come upon us. In order to aid intelligently, we have to inform ourselves, to educate ourselves, to learn the world that has suddenly called upon us for responsible coöperation, and to study the peoples, races, states and problems with which we shall have to work.

Such volumes as this "2,000 Questions and Answers About the War" are the text-books with which we shall have to begin. It gives the background of difficulties out of which the war arose. It relates the development and progress of the conflict that widened to include us as the aims of the great imperial enemy of our peaceful civilization developed and progressed. It indicates the necessary basis for a permanent settlement of the terrible dispute.

In other countries, where the policy of the nation has been in the hands of a governing class, such knowledge can be left to the officers of administration and the legislative advisers who control them.

Here it must be the possession of the whole people, in order that we may be able successfully to carry out President Wilson's famous aim "to make the world safe for democracy."

This war will not be won until it becomes part and parcel of every individual life, until it dominates every thought and activity. This burning consciousness can be gained only through an exact knowledge of the *facts* in the case, for it is in the simplicities of truth that America and the great liberal nations find fullest justification. The "2,000 Questions and Answers," in my opinion, constitute a vital part of the national defense.

GEORGE CREEL.

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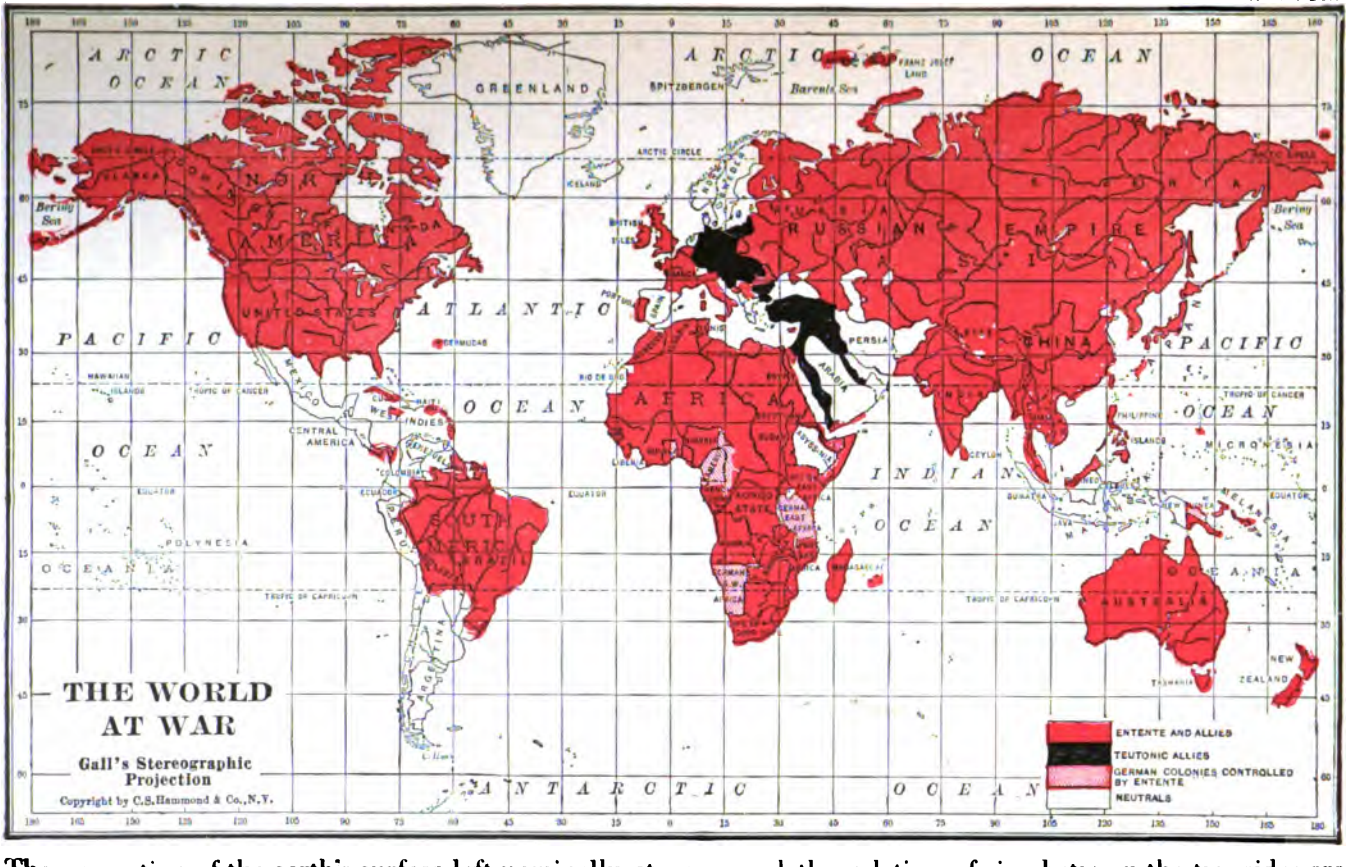
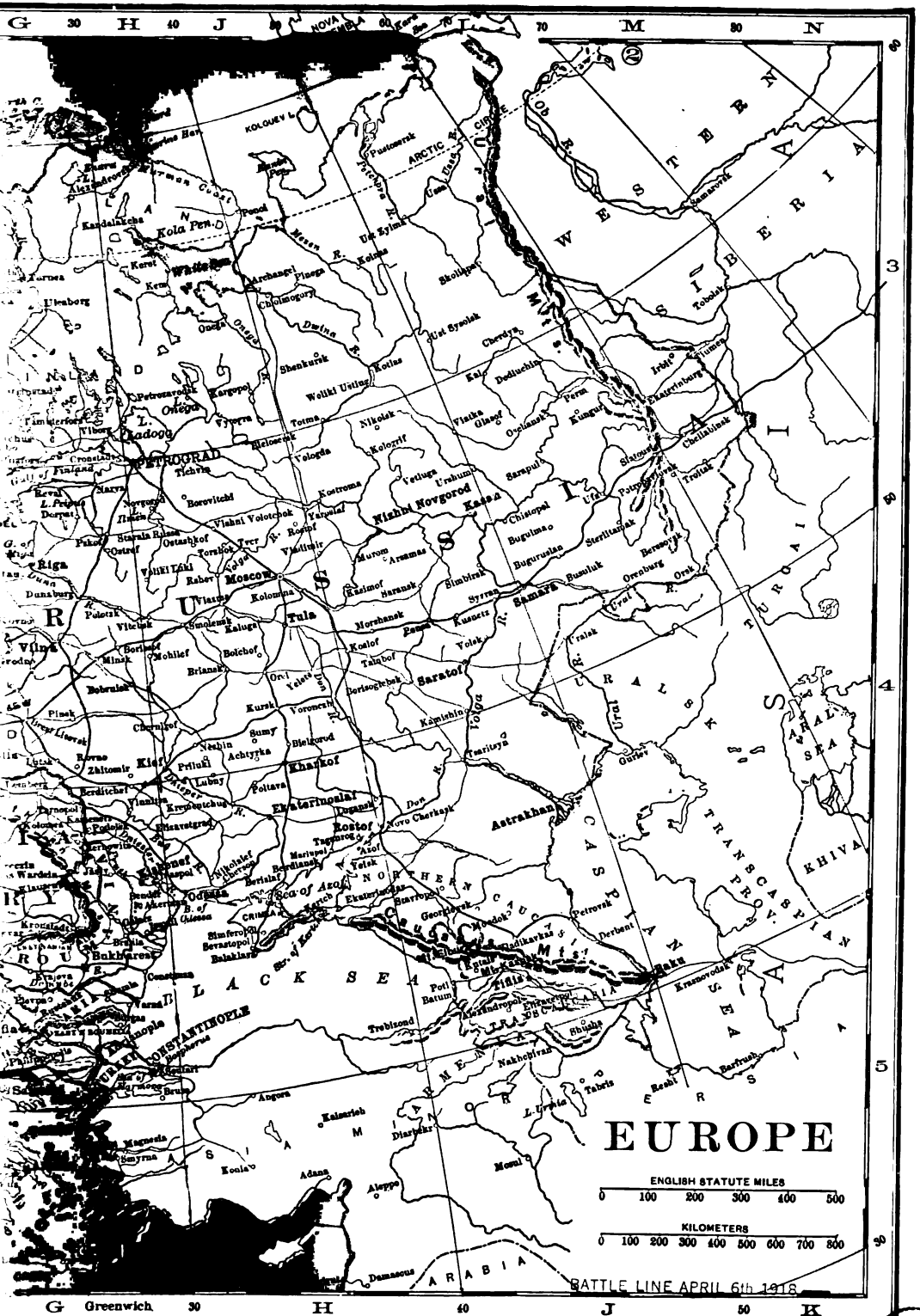
"Look at a map of Germany's dominion. I saw a map the other day appropriately printed in black, and the black stretched all the way from Hamburg to Bagdad. If she can keep that, her power can disturb the world always, provided present influences, in the country and the government, can still control."

Woodrow Wilson

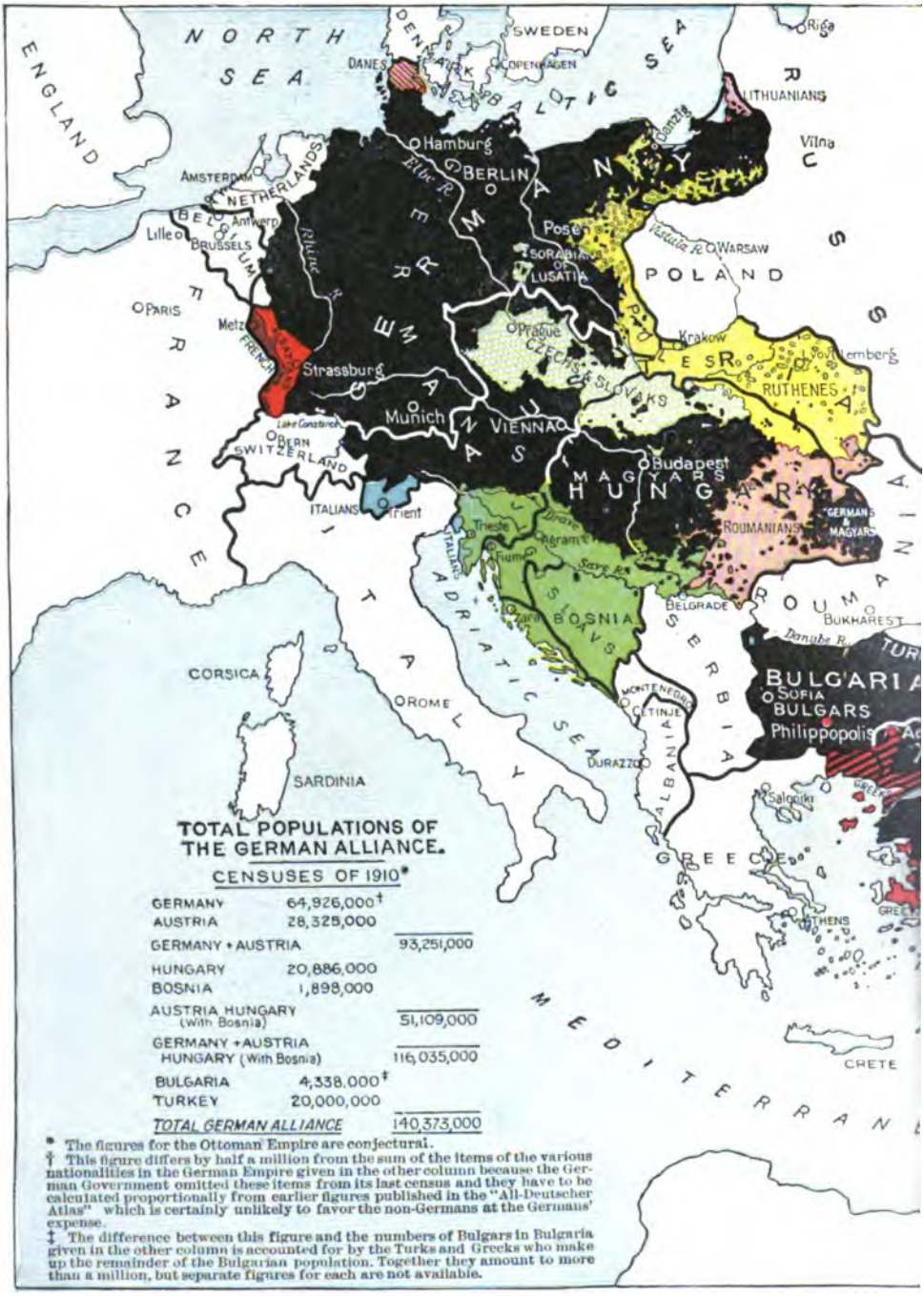


The proportion of the earth's surface left nominally at peace and the relation of size between the two sides are strikingly shown in this map.

The "Barred Zones" which Germany
(The regions proclaimed closed to



rected around her Enemies.
traffic are shown in blue.)



TOTAL POPULATIONS OF THE GERMAN ALLIANCE.

CENSUSES OF 1910*

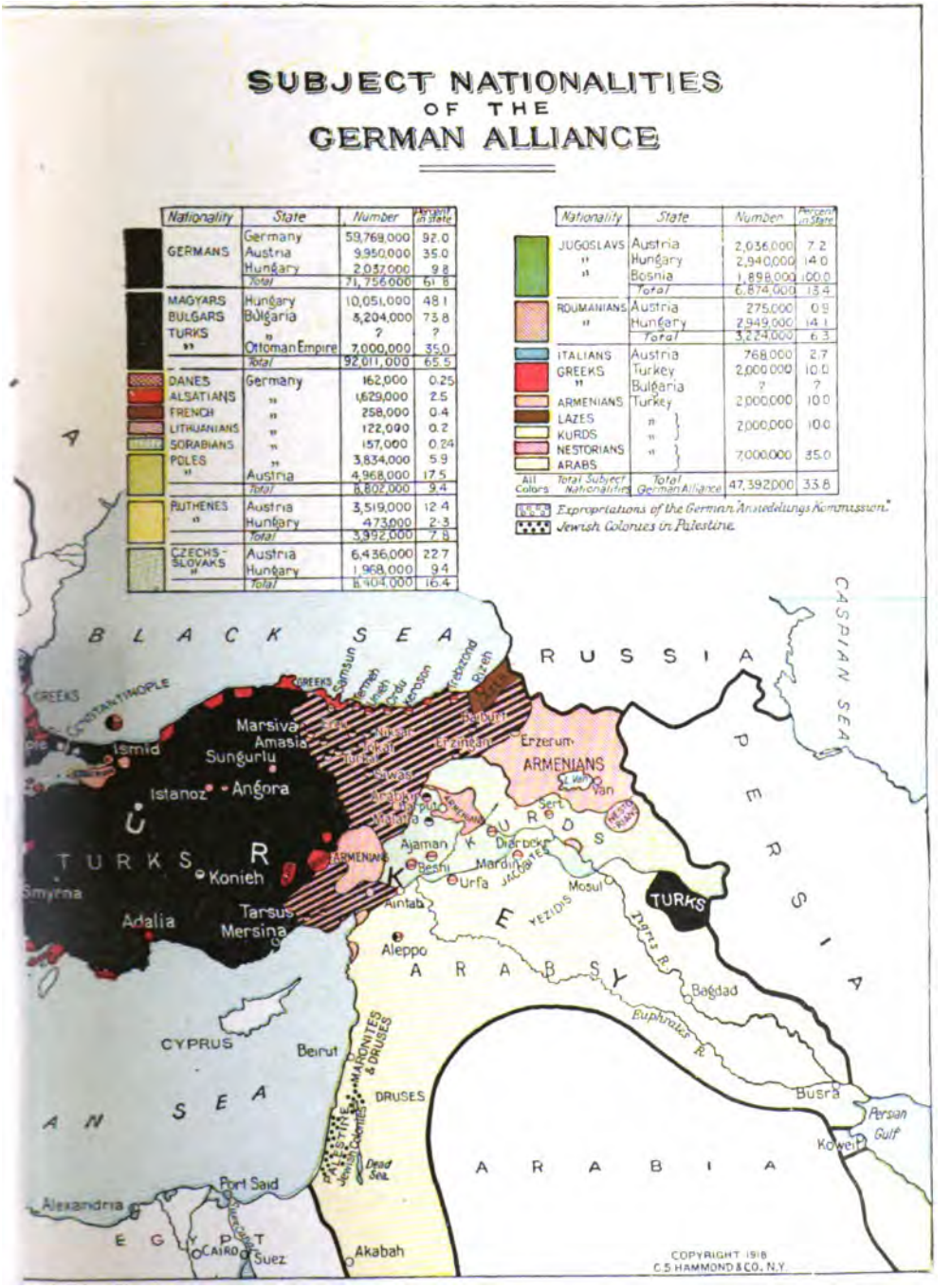
GERMANY	64,926,000†	
AUSTRIA	28,325,000	
GERMANY + AUSTRIA		93,251,000
HUNGARY	20,886,000	
BOSNIA	1,898,000	
AUSTRIA HUNGARY (with Bosnia)		51,109,000
GERMANY + AUSTRIA HUNGARY (With Bosnia)		116,035,000
BULGARIA	4,338,000‡	
TURKEY	20,000,000	
TOTAL GERMAN ALLIANCE		140,373,000

* The figures for the Ottoman Empire are conjectural.

† This figure differs by half a million from the sum of the items of the various nationalities in the German Empire given in the other column because the German Government omitted these items from its last census and they have to be calculated proportionally from earlier figures published in the "All-Deutscher Atlas" which is certainly unlikely to favor the non-Germans at the Germans' expense.

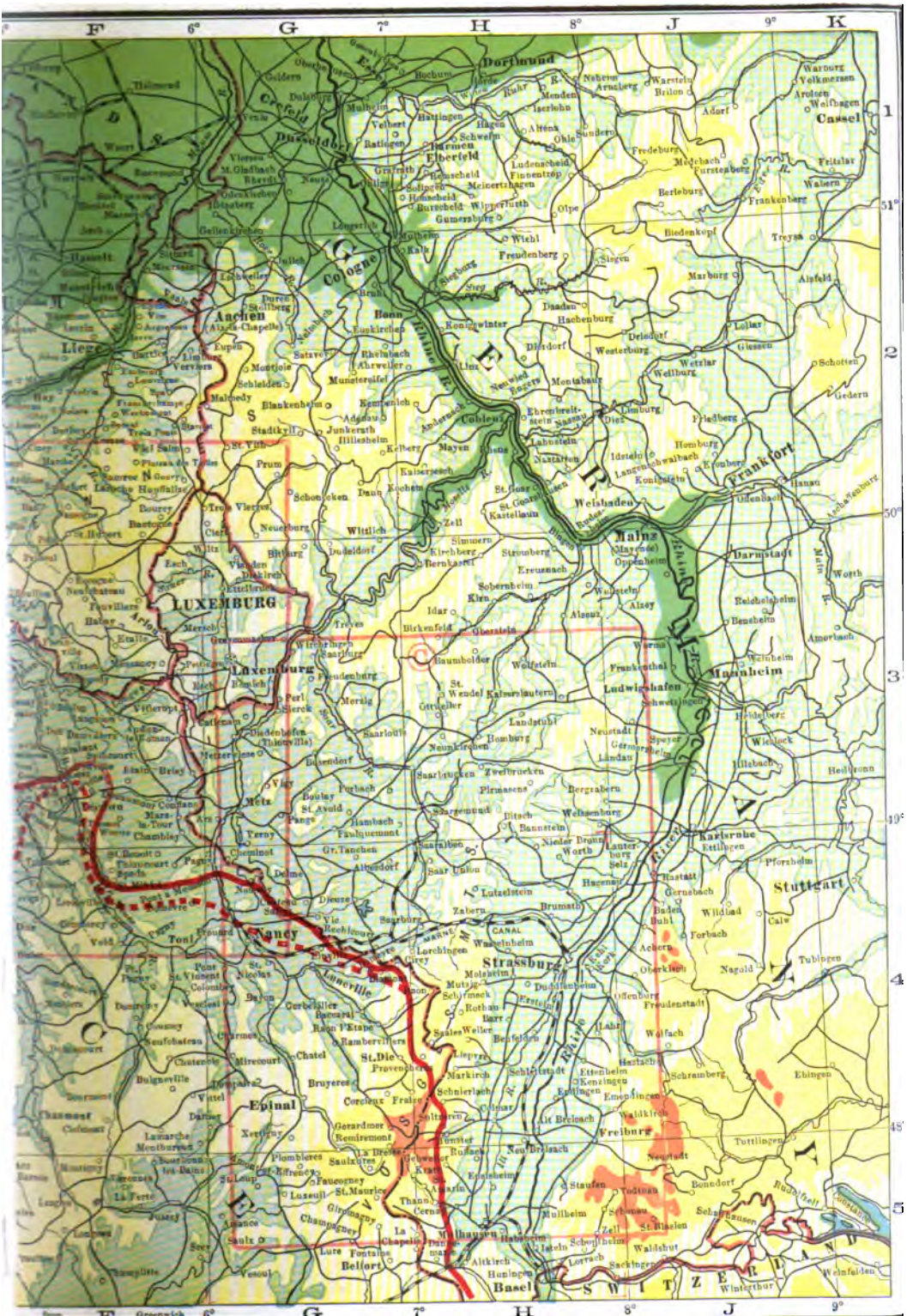
‡ The difference between this figure and the numbers of Bulgars in Bulgaria given in the other column is accounted for by the Turks and Greeks who make up the remainder of the Bulgarian population. Together they amount to more than a million, but separate figures for each are not available.

The German Alliance: Note the many in erse

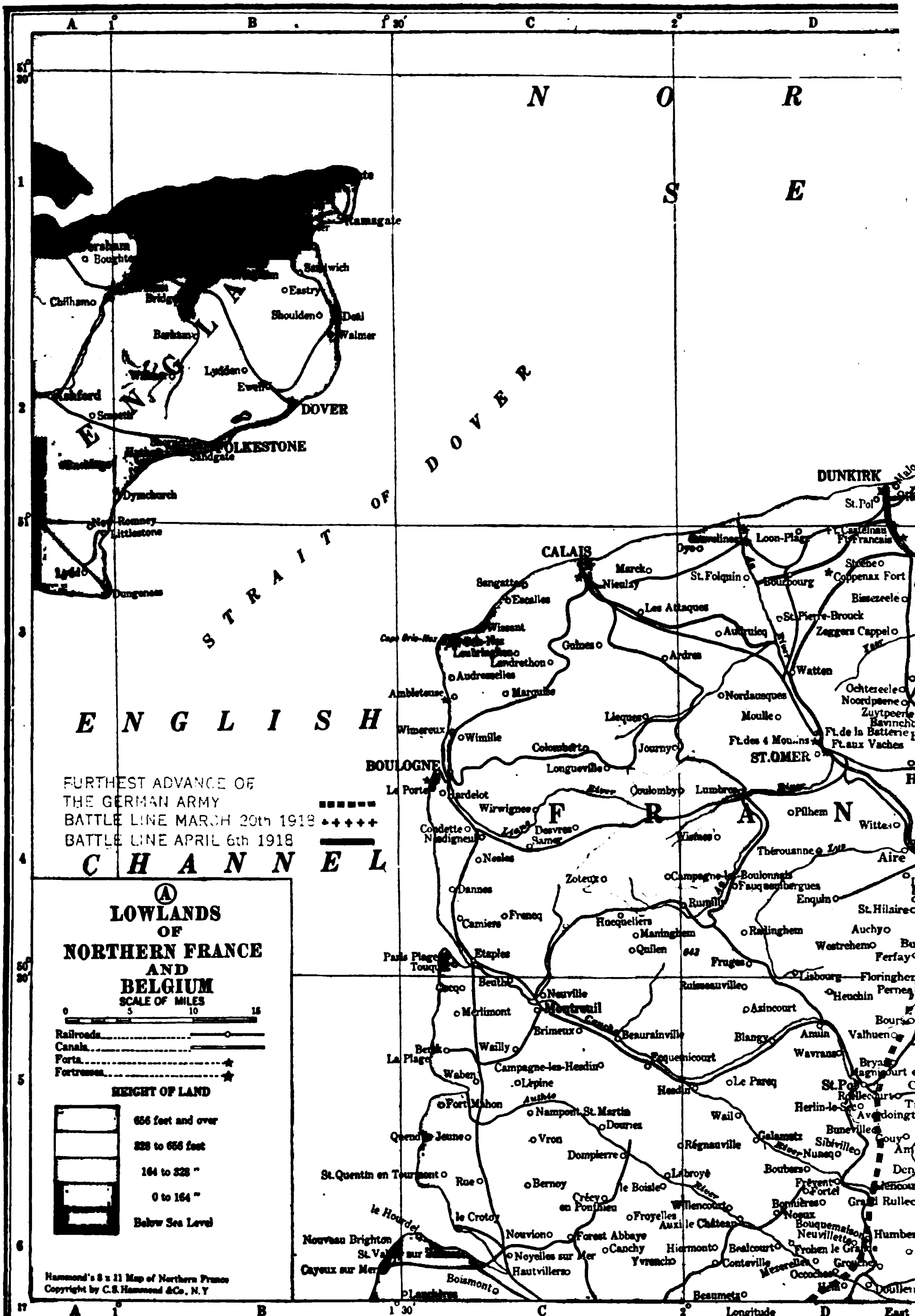


nationalities dominated by the Central Powers.

The Topography of the Western Battle Fronts

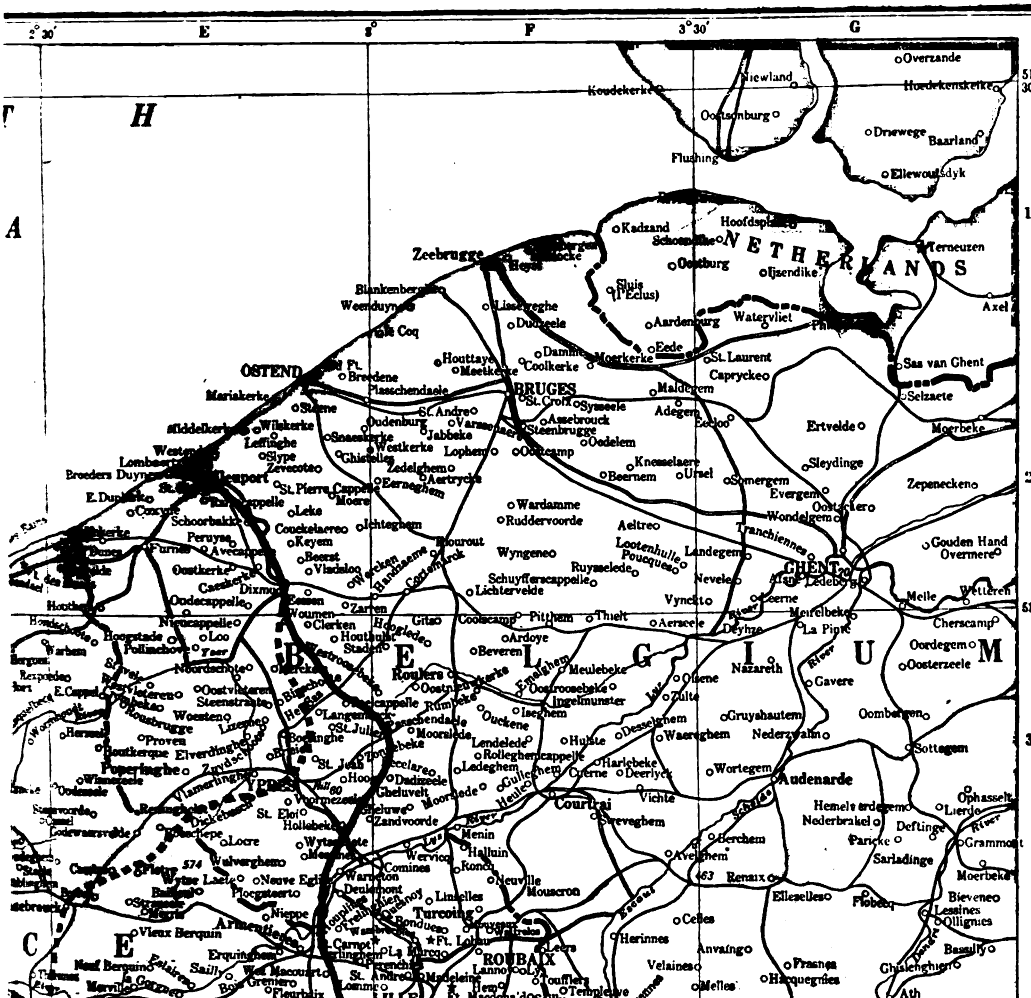


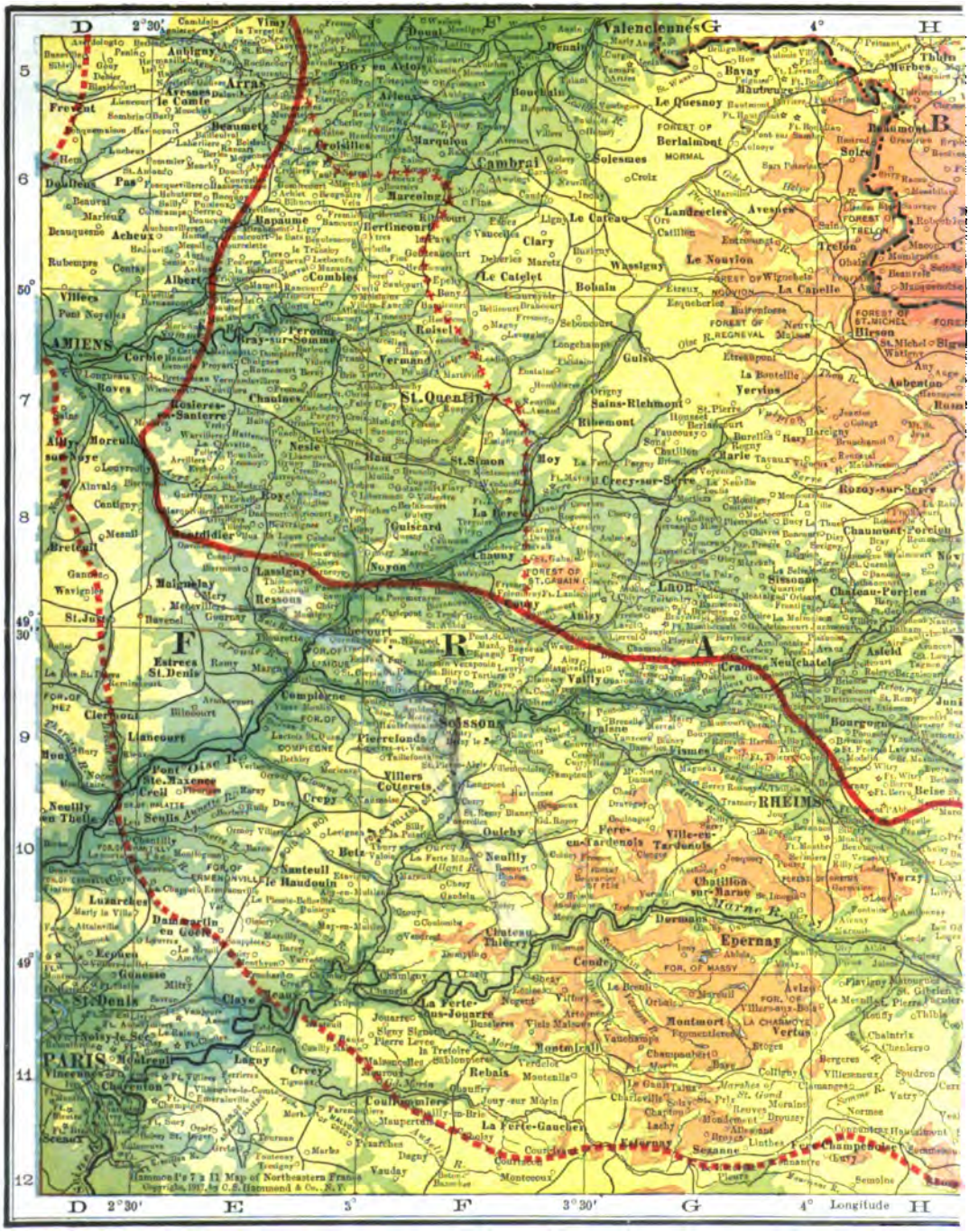
From Sea-level mud and marsh to Mountain-top.



MAP

Where Germany's Southwestern ...

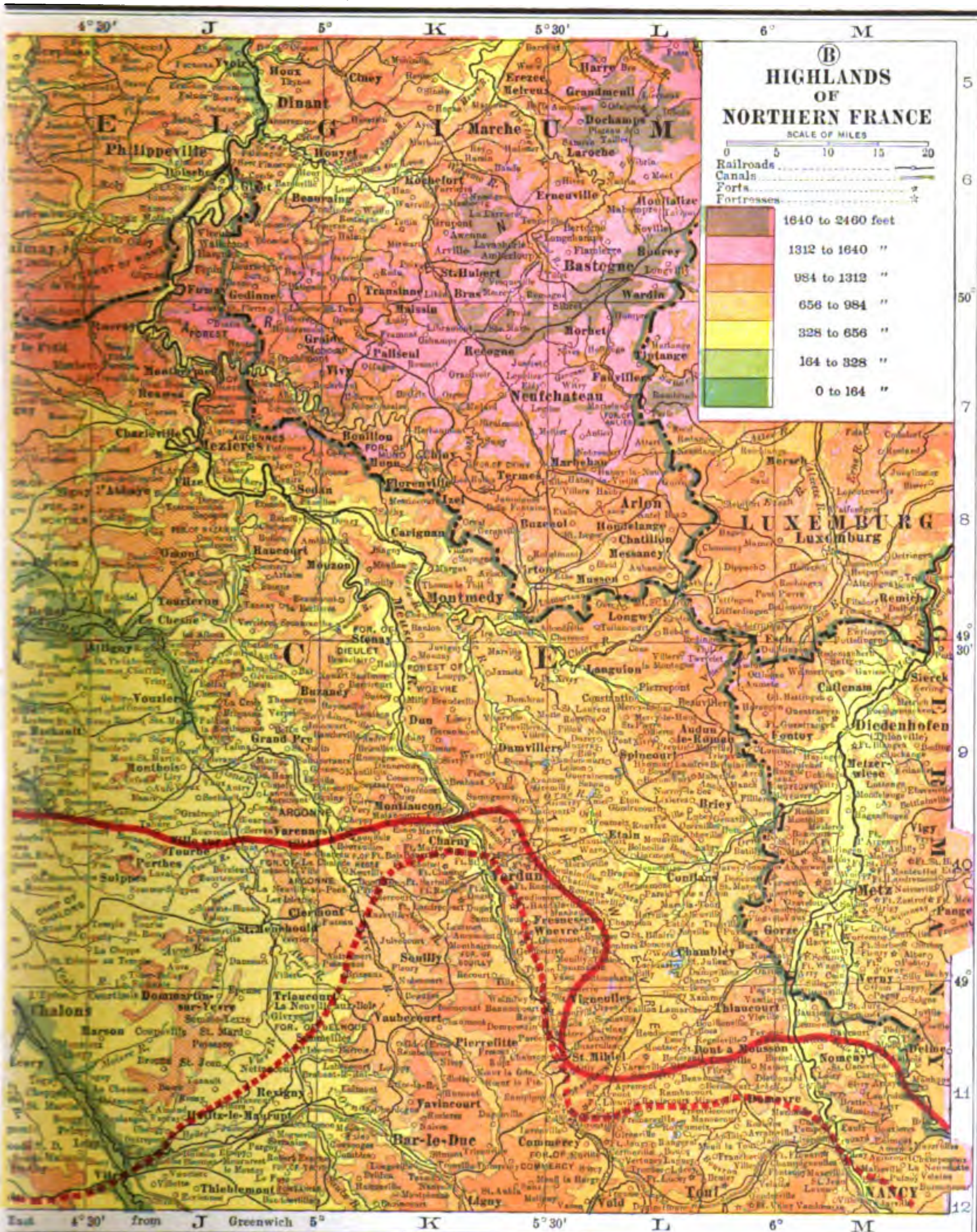

NETHERLANDS
BELGIUM
FRANCE
OSTEND
Zeebrugge
BRUGES
GHENT
Flushing
Terneuzen
Sas van Ghent
Nieuport
Dixmude
YPRES
Poperinghe
Roulers
Courtrai
Audenarde
Menin
Armentières
Tourcoing
ROUBAIX
LILLE
TOURNAY
Bethune
La Bassée
Lens
ARRAS
DOUAI
Cambrai
VALENCIENNES
Condé
MONS
MAUBEUGE
Bavay
Ath
Renaix
Grammont
Thielt
Wyngene
Lichtervelde
Passchendaele
Messines
Wytschaete
Hollebeke
Gheluvelt
Zandvoorde
Neuve Chapelle
Fromelles
Aubers
Festubert
Givenchy
Vimy
Souchez
Carency
Neuville
Bapaume
Croisilles
Quéant
Marcoing
Le Quesnoy
Landrecies
from Greenwich
2° 30'
3°
3° 30'
E
F
G
1
2
3
4
5
6
51° 30'
51°
50° 30'
"A"



FURTHEST ADVANCE OF THE GERMAN ARMY ▪▪▪▪▪▪

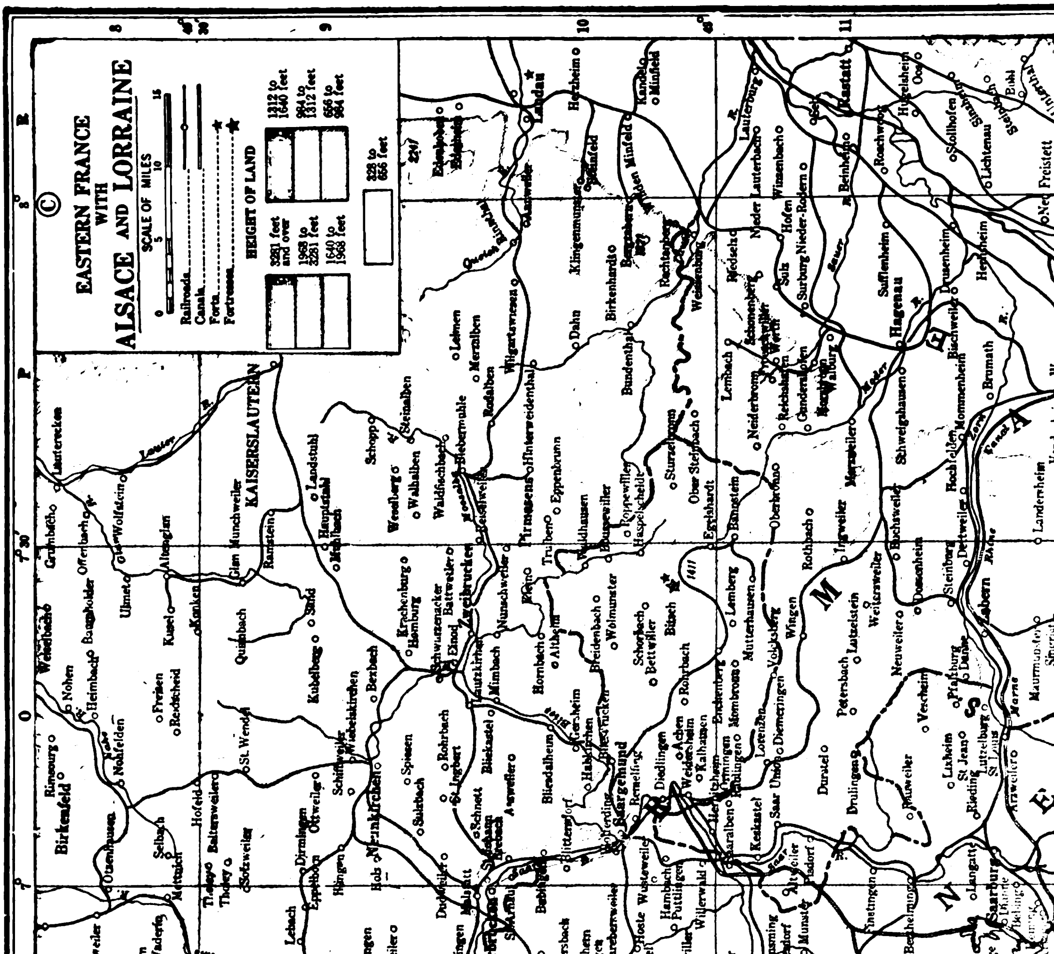
MAP

A Land upon which the Chaos of Desolation

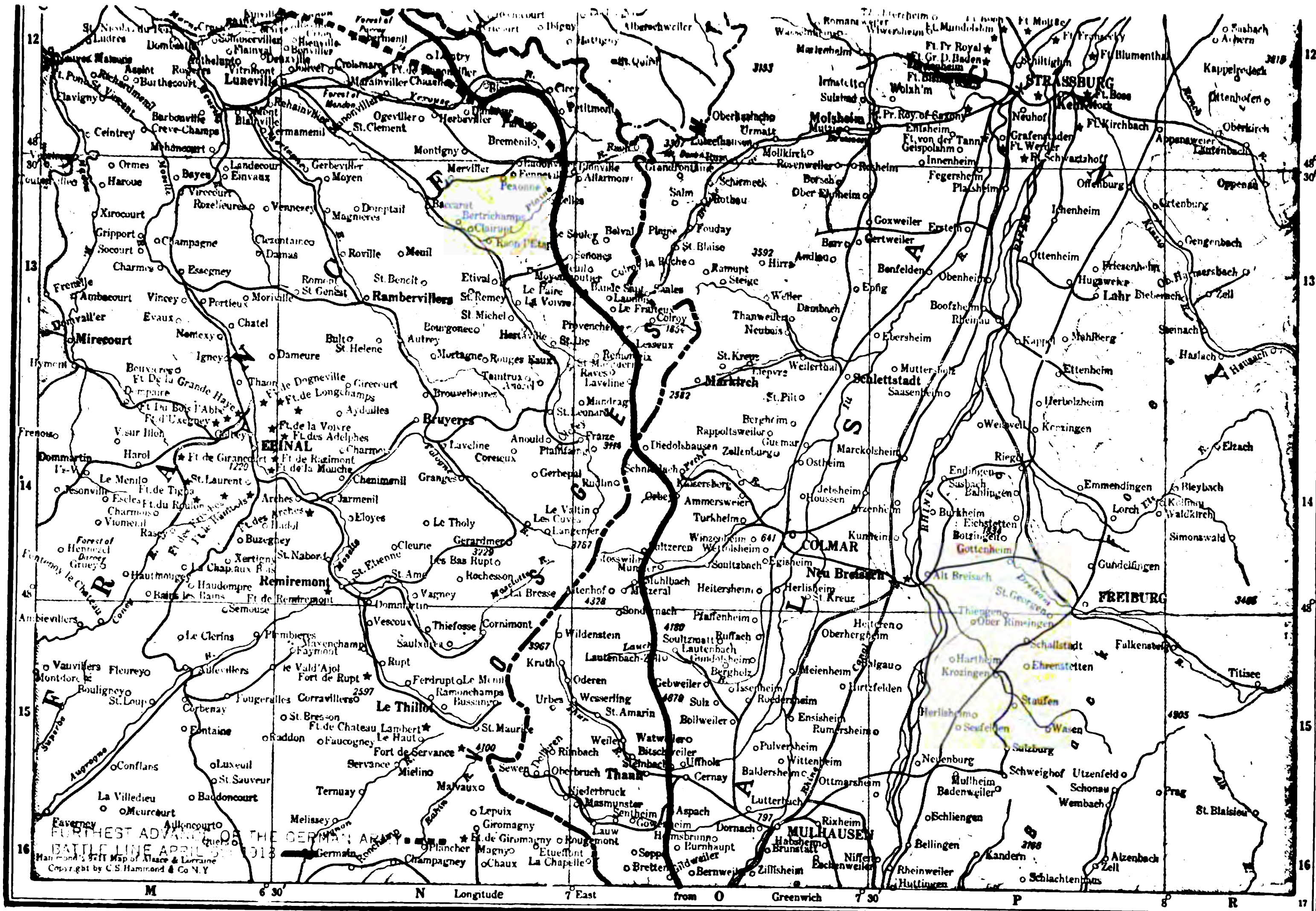


"B" BATTLE LINE MARCH 20th 1918 ++++ BATTLE LINE APRIL 6th 1918 ▬▬

has descended through Years of War.


EASTERN FRANCE
WITH
ALSACE AND LORRAINE
SCALE OF MILES
Railroads
Canals
Forts
Fortresses
HEIGHT OF LAND
3281 feet and over
1968 to 3281 feet
1640 to 1968 feet
1312 to 1640 feet
984 to 1312 feet
656 to 984 feet
328 to 656 feet
KAISERSLAUTERN
LUXEMBURG
METZ
NANCY

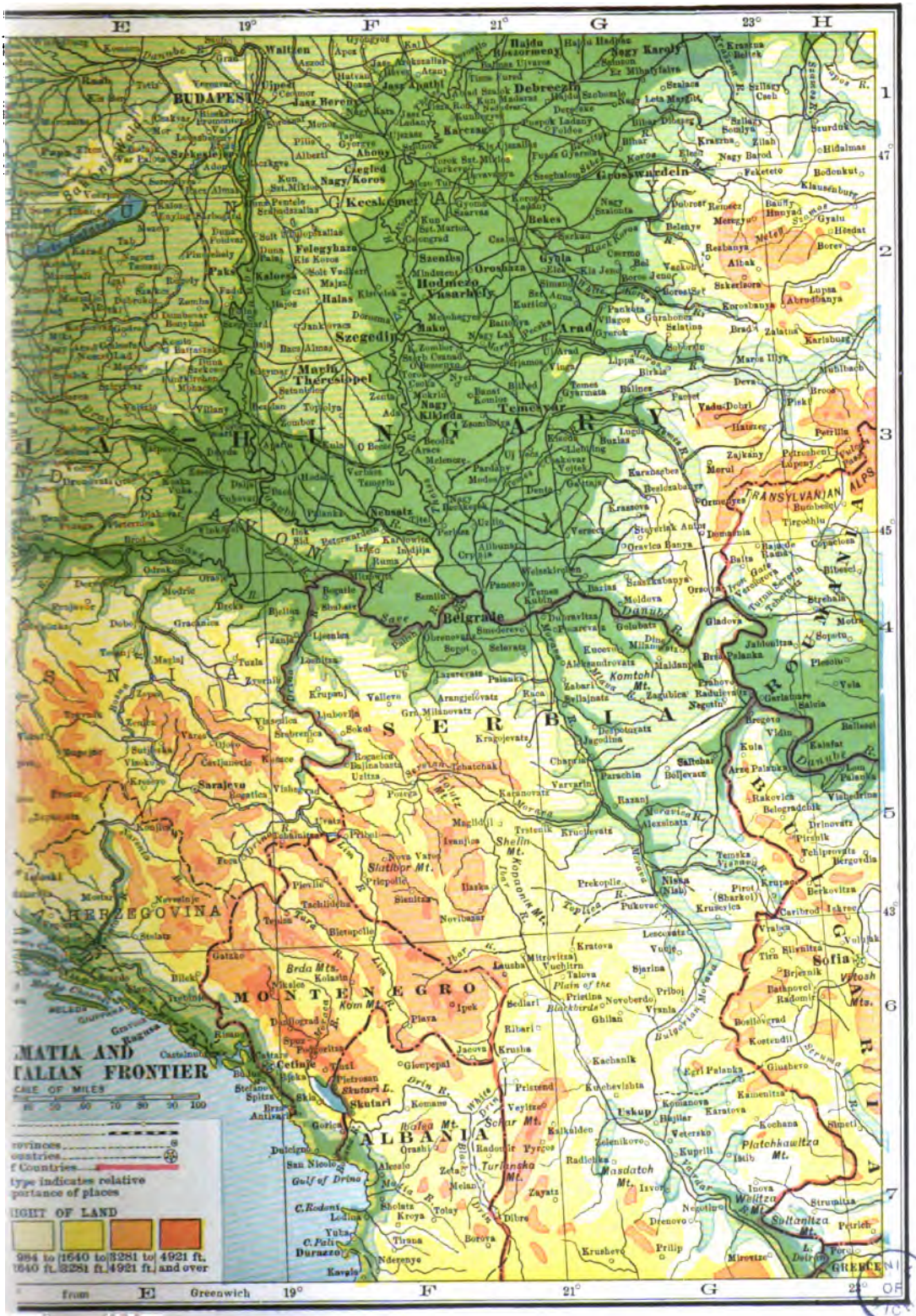
MAP



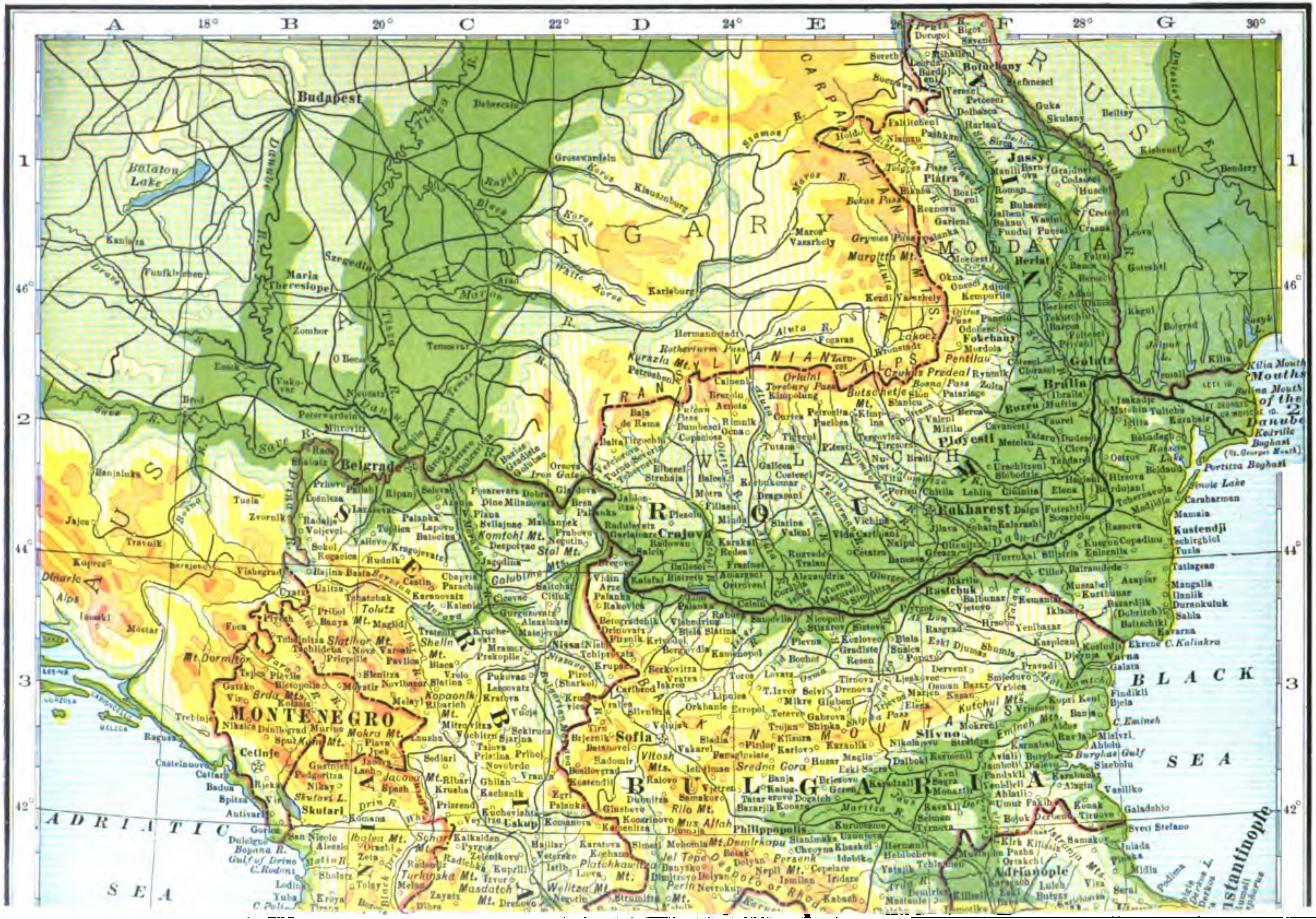
The Debatable Country

The Coast of Italy's

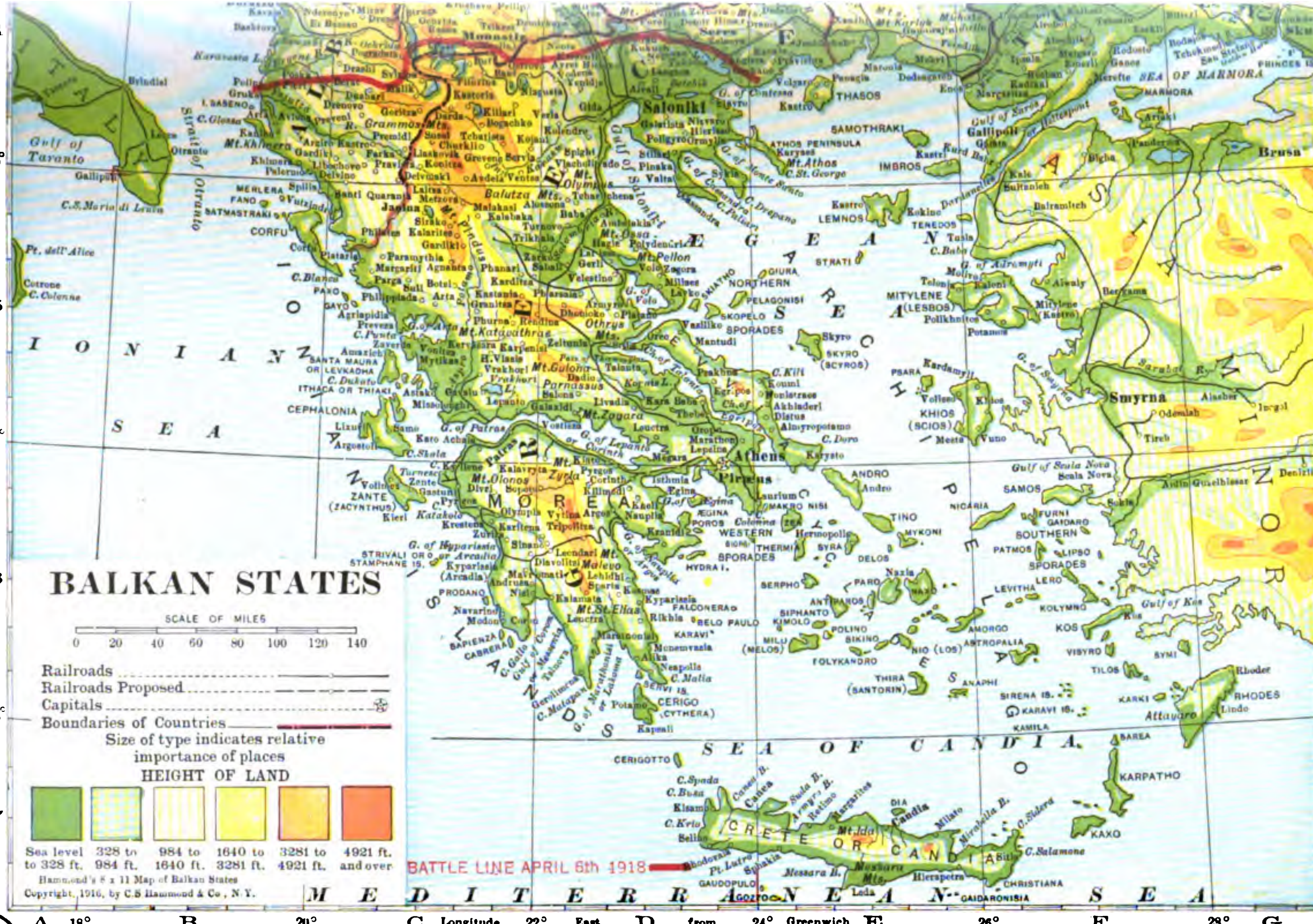
A glance at the shores of the Adriatic shows that practically all



Hopes and Fears.



HUNGARY
AUSTRIA
TRANSYLVANIAN ALPS
CARPATHIAN MTS.
MOLDAVIA
WALACHIA
ROUMANIA
RUSSIA
SERVIA
MONTENEGRO
BULGARIA
BALKAN MOUNTAINS
BLACK SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
Budapest
Balaton Lake
Belgrade
Bukharest
Jassy
Braila
Galatz
Ployesti
Crajova
Sofia
Cetinje
Skutari
Philippopolis
Adrianople
Varna
Kustendji
Rustchuk
Slivno
Nissa
Danube R.
Mouths of the Danube



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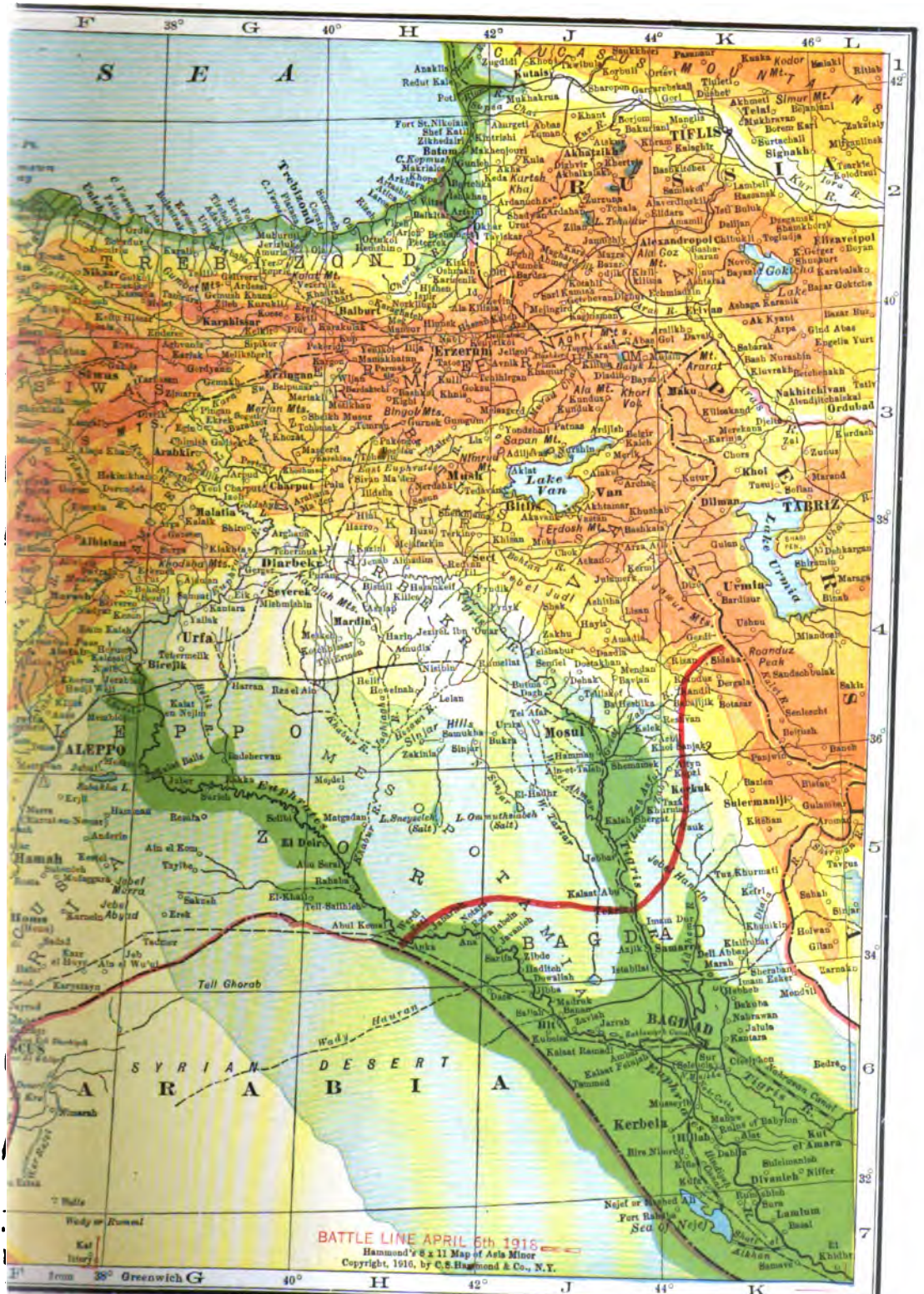
The Powder Magazine of Europe.

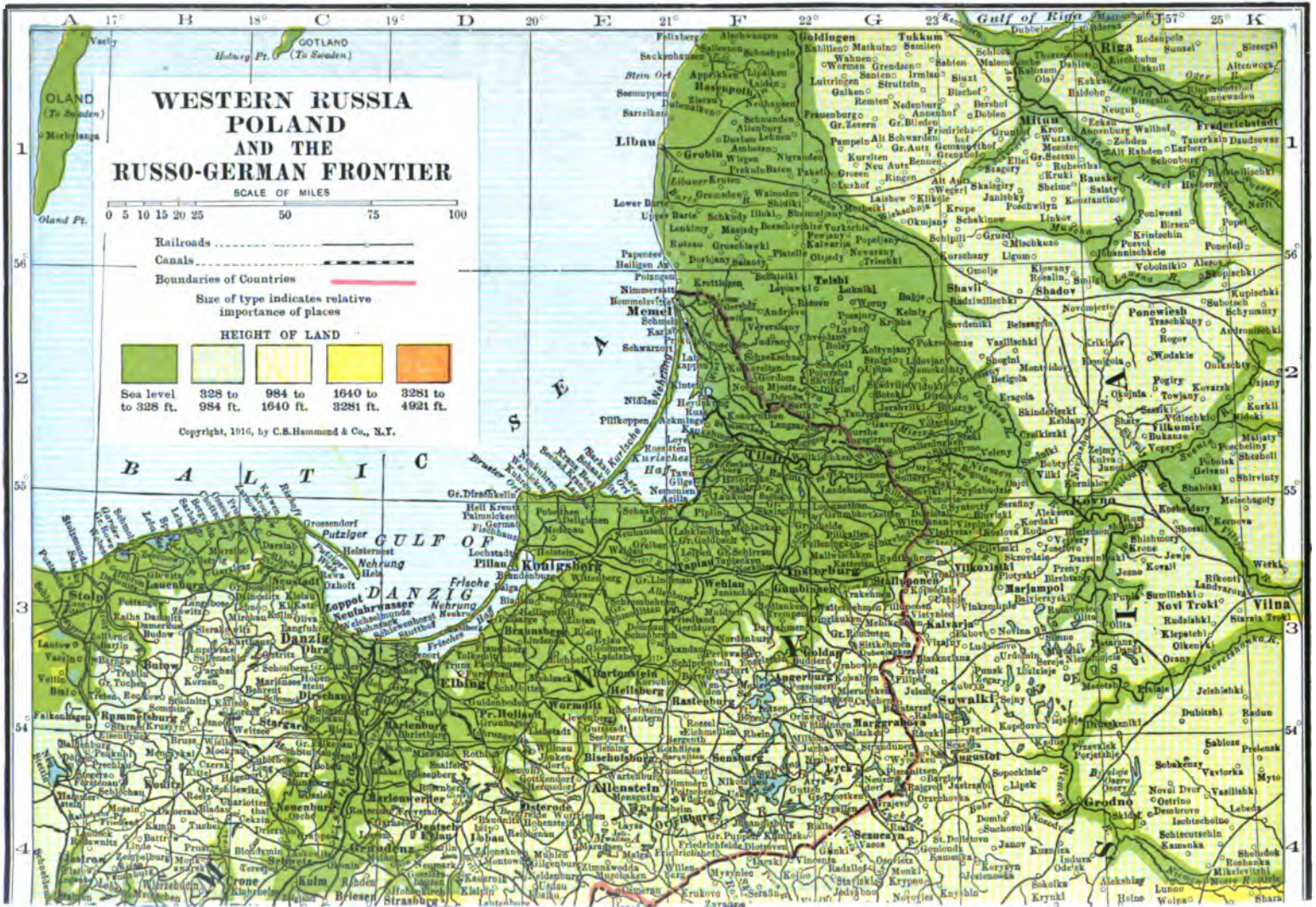
The Gateway

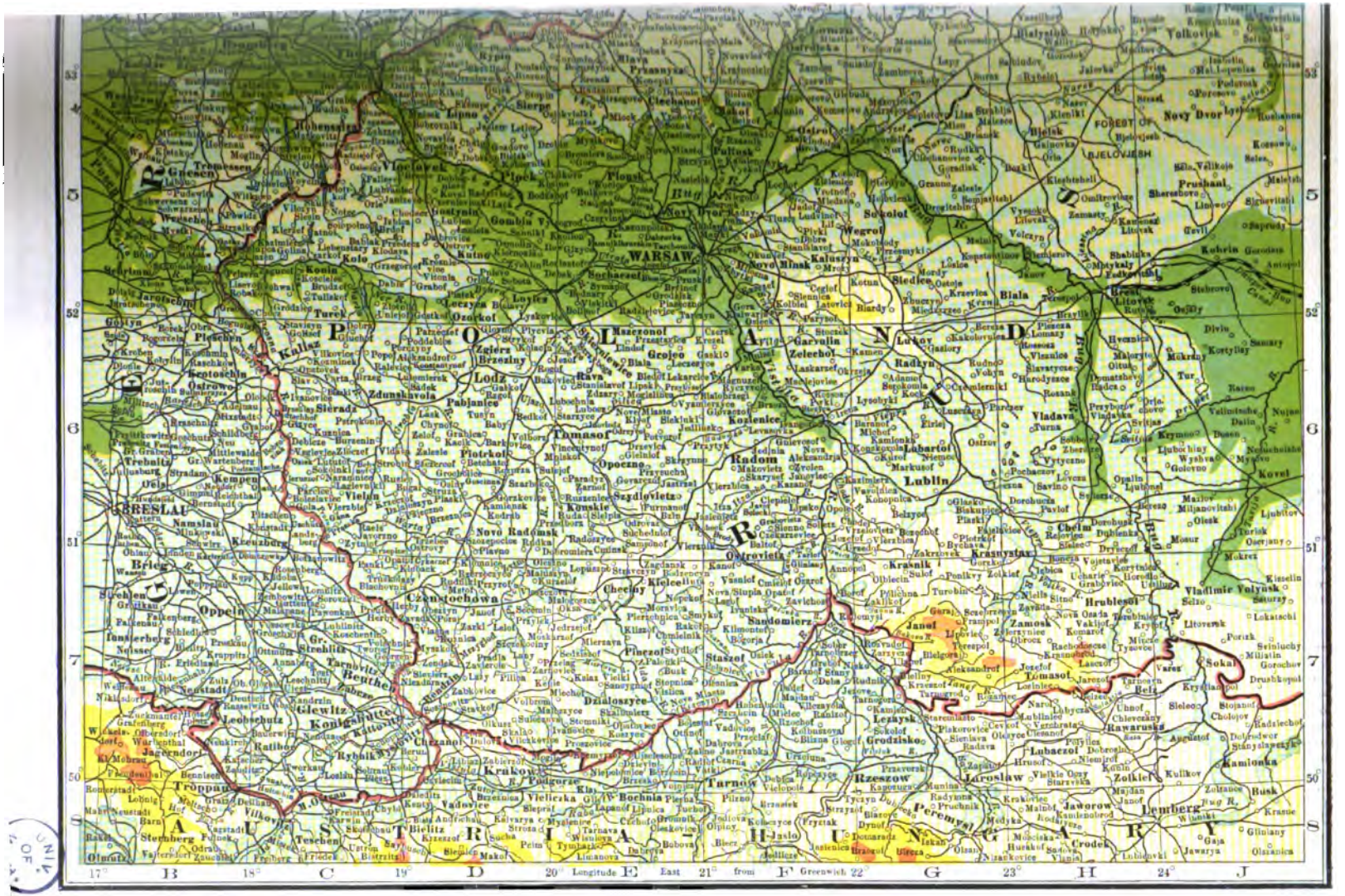
The scene of Great Britain's most humiliating failures



to the East.

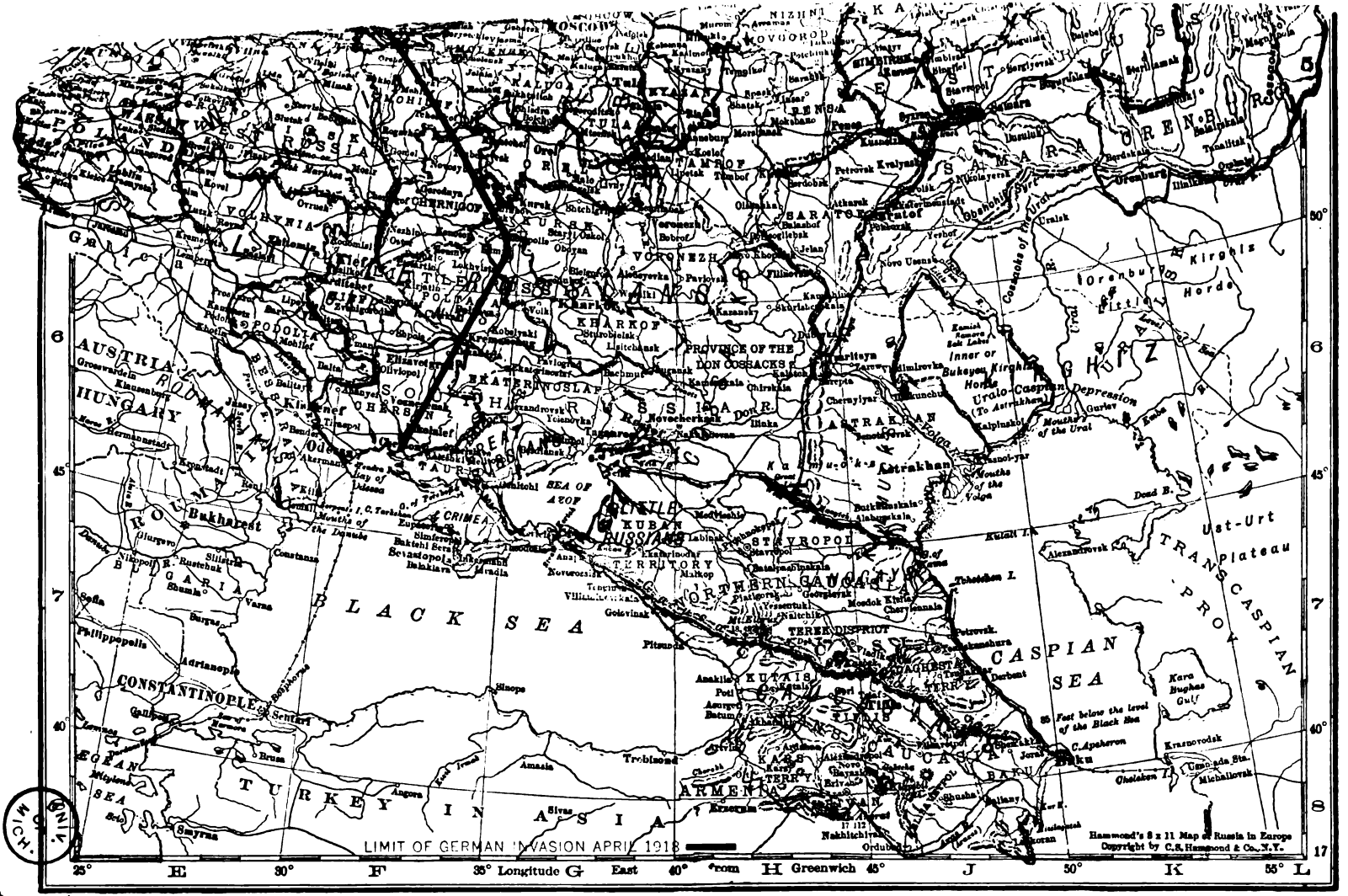
and some of her most brilliant


WESTERN RUSSIA
POLAND
AND THE
RUSSO-GERMAN FRONTIER
SCALE OF MILES
0 5 10 15 20 25 50 75 100
Railroads
Canals
Boundaries of Countries
Size of type indicates relative importance of places
HEIGHT OF LAND
Sea level to 328 ft.
328 to 984 ft.
984 to 1640 ft.
1640 to 3281 ft.
3281 to 4921 ft.
Copyright, 1916, by C.S.Hammond & Co., N.Y.
BALTIC SEA
GULF OF DANZIG
Gulf of Riga
OLAND (To Sweden)
GOTLAND (To Sweden)
Oland Pt.
Hoburg Pt.
Memel
Tilsit
Königsberg
Danzig
Elbing
Marienburg
Graudenz
Thorn
Kulm
Strasburg
Allenstein
Osterode
Soldau
Neidenburg
Lyck
Angerburg
Goldap
Suwalki
Marggrabowa
Kalvarja
Wilkowischki
Marjampol
Vilkovishki
Kovna
Vilna
Novi Troki
Grodno
Libau
Riga
Mitau
Shavli
Shadov
Telshi
Kelmi
Ponewiesh
Rossieny
Kupischki
Schaulen
Pogiry
Kovarsk
Ozjany
Kurkli
Wilkomir
Schirvinty
Oszmiana
Olkieniki
Jeziory
Sabloze
Prelenk
Sokolka
Krynki
Lunno
Wolpa
Shara
Lomza
Ostrolenka
Mlawa
Soldau
Neidenburg
Willenberg
Johannisburg
Lötzen
Rastenburg
Bartenstein
Heiligenbeil
Braunsberg
Elbing
Marienwerder
Graudenz
Thorn
Kulm
Strasburg
Briesen
Culm
Gollub
Rehden
Lautenburg
Soldau
Neidenburg
Willenberg
Johannisburg
Lötzen
Angerburg
Goldap
Suwalki
Marggrabowa
Kalvarja
Wilkowischki
Marjampol
Vilkovishki
Kovna
Vilna
Novi Troki
Grodno
Libau
Riga
Mitau
Shavli
Shadov
Telshi
Kelmi
Ponewiesh
Rossieny
Kupischki
Schaulen
Pogiry
Kovarsk
Ozjany
Kurkli
Wilkomir
Schirvinty
Oszmiana
Olkieniki
Jeziory
Sabloze
Prelenk
Sokolka
Krynki
Lunno
Wolpa
Shara
Lomza
Ostrolenka
Mlawa

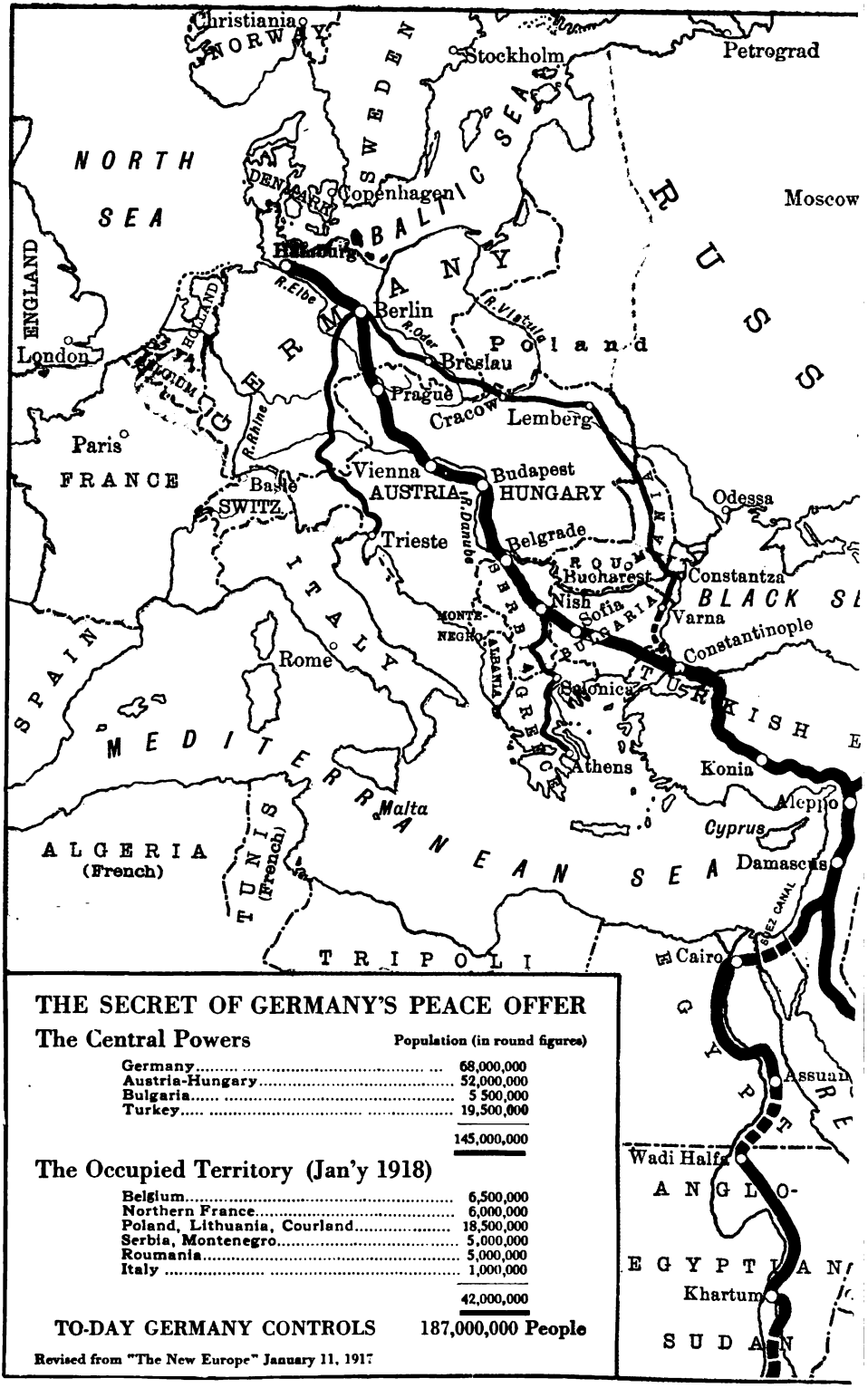


Where Russian Collapse and German Drive has changed the Map of Europe.

RUSSIA
IN EUROPE
AND CAUCASIA
SCALE OF MILES
0 50 100 150 200 250
Railroads
Submarine Cables
Canals
Size of type indicates relative importance of places
ARCTIC OCEAN
KARA SEA
NOVA ZEMBLA
Yalmal Peninsula
GULF OF OB
WESTERN SIBIRIA
LAPLAND
Kola Peninsula
WHITE SEA
ARCHANGEL
FINLAND
OLONETZ
VOLOGDA
PERM
VIATKA
KOSTROMA
YAROSLAV
TVER
NOVGOROD
PSKOV
VITEBSK
VLADIMIR
PETROGRAD
Lake Ladoga
Lake Onega
Stockholm
Riga
Gulf of Finland
Kola Peninsula
Kanin Peninsula
Vaigach I.
Kolguev I.
Kara Bay
Cheskaia Bay
Ob R.
Kazan
Nizhni Novgorod
Vologda
Kostroma
Yaroslav
Tver
Pskov
Vitebsk
Vladimir
Viatka
Perm
Archangel
Petrograd
Novgorod
Riga
Stockholm
Helsingfors
Kola
Kazan



The Country that was Russia: The New Ukrainian Republic outlined in red.



THE SECRET OF GERMANY'S PEACE OFFER

The Central Powers

	Population (in round figures)
Germany	68,000,000
Austria-Hungary	52,000,000
Bulgaria	5 500,000
Turkey	19,500,000
	145,000,000

The Occupied Territory (Jan'y 1918)

Belgium	6,500,000
Northern France	6,000,000
Poland, Lithuania, Courland	18,500,000
Serbia, Montenegro	5,000,000
Roumania	5,000,000
Italy	1,000,000
	42,000,000

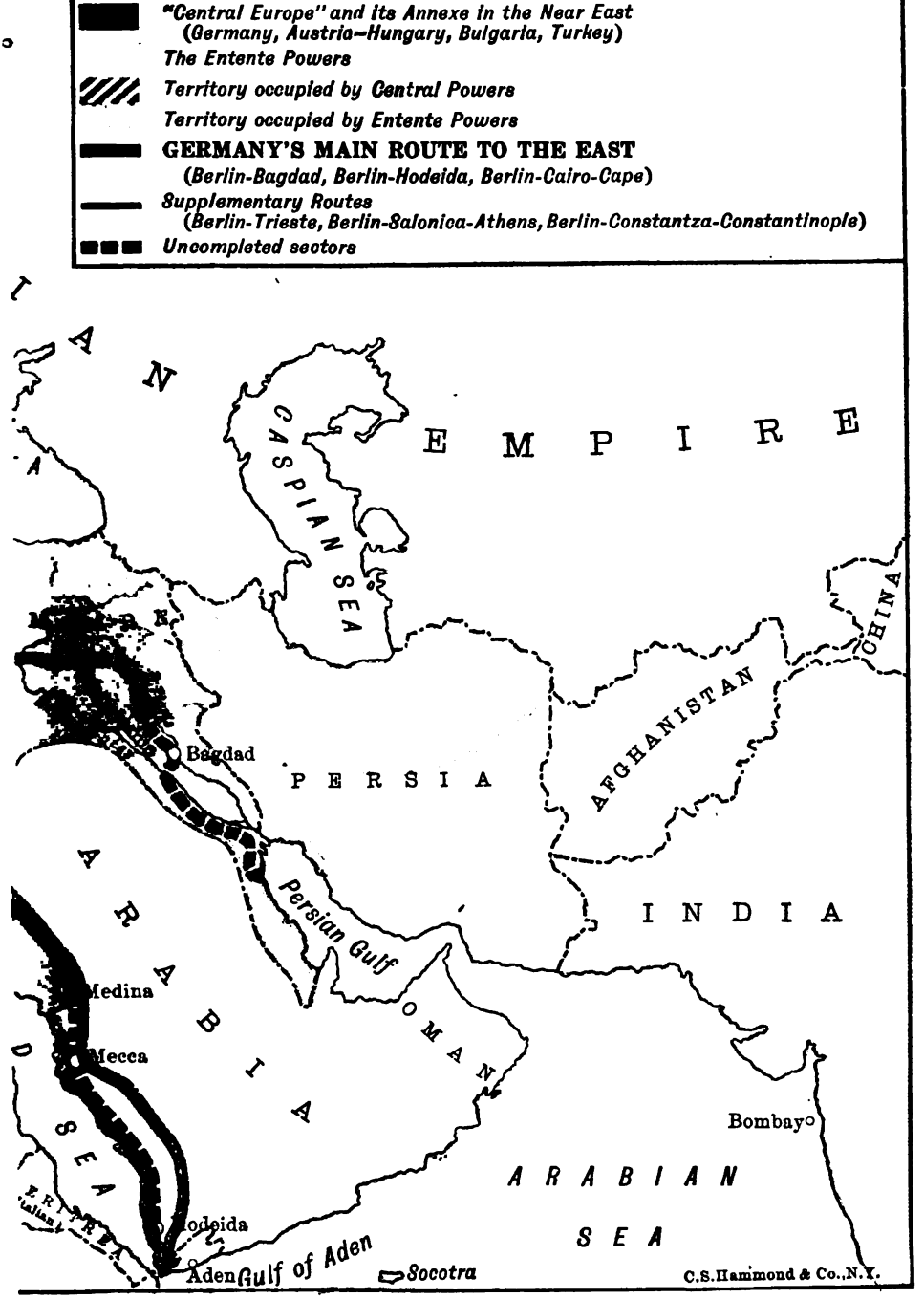
TO-DAY GERMANY CONTROLS 187,000,000 People

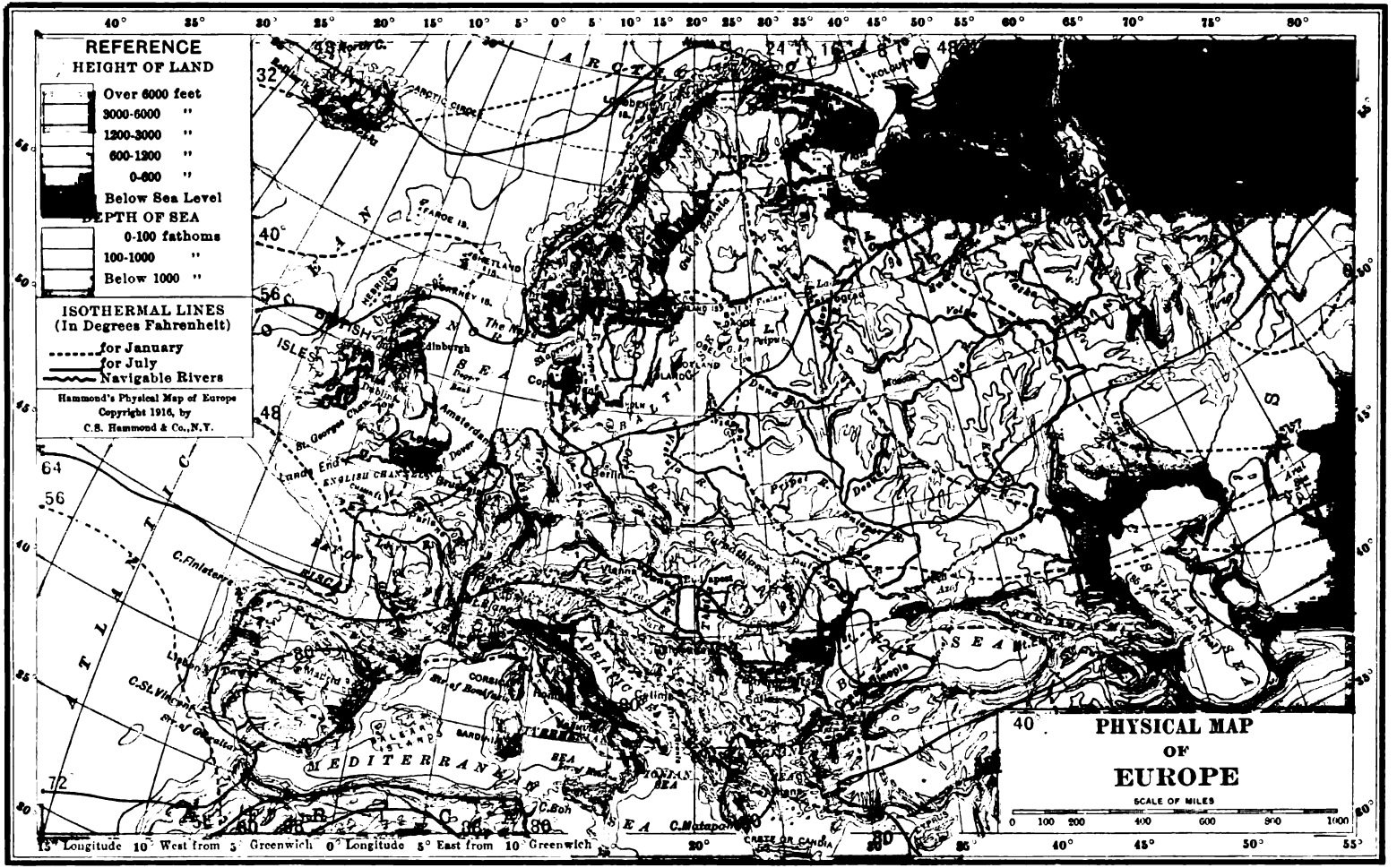
Revised from "The New Europe" January 11, 1917

THE PAN-GERMAN PLAN

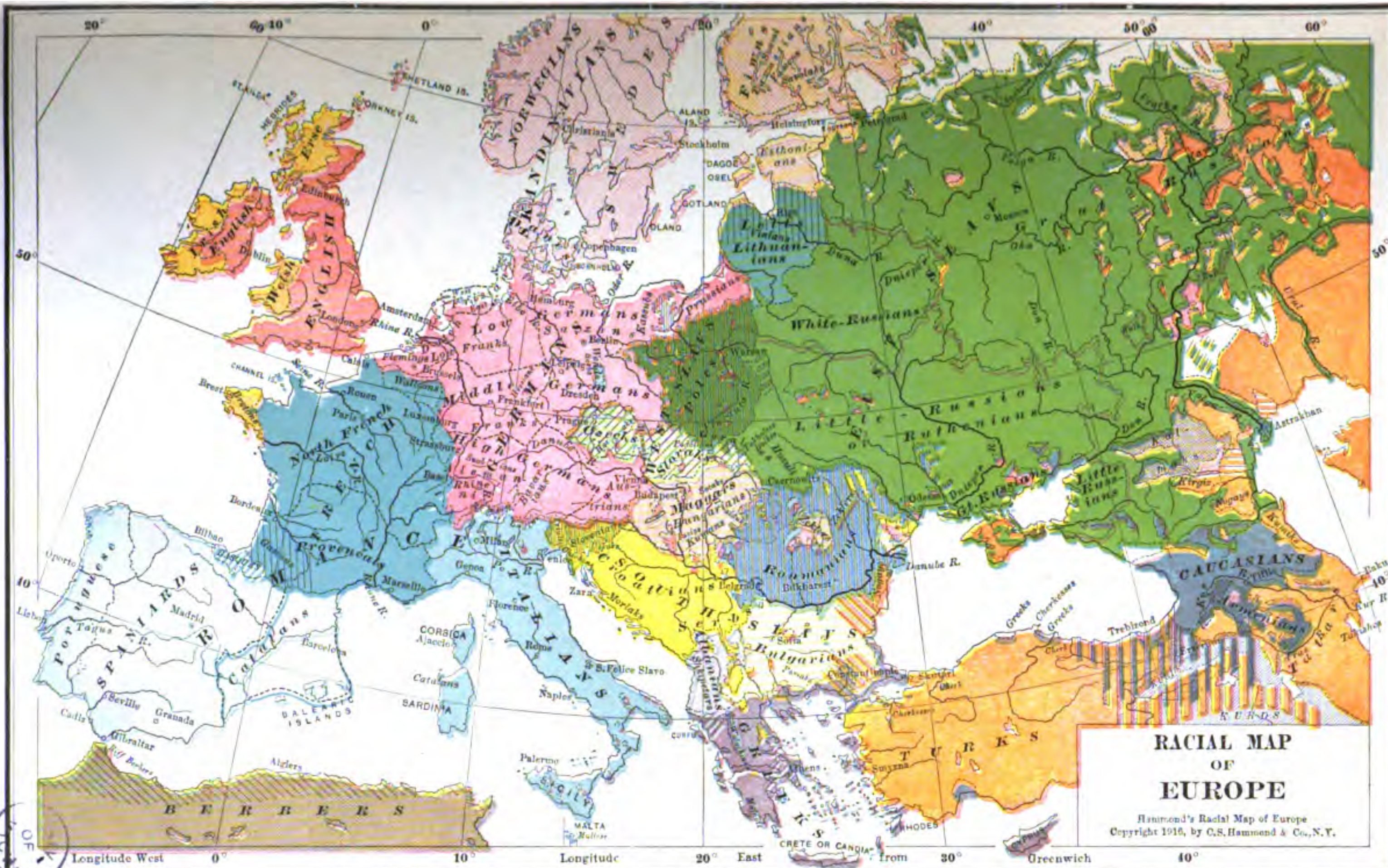
as realised by War

IN EUROPE AND IN ASIA

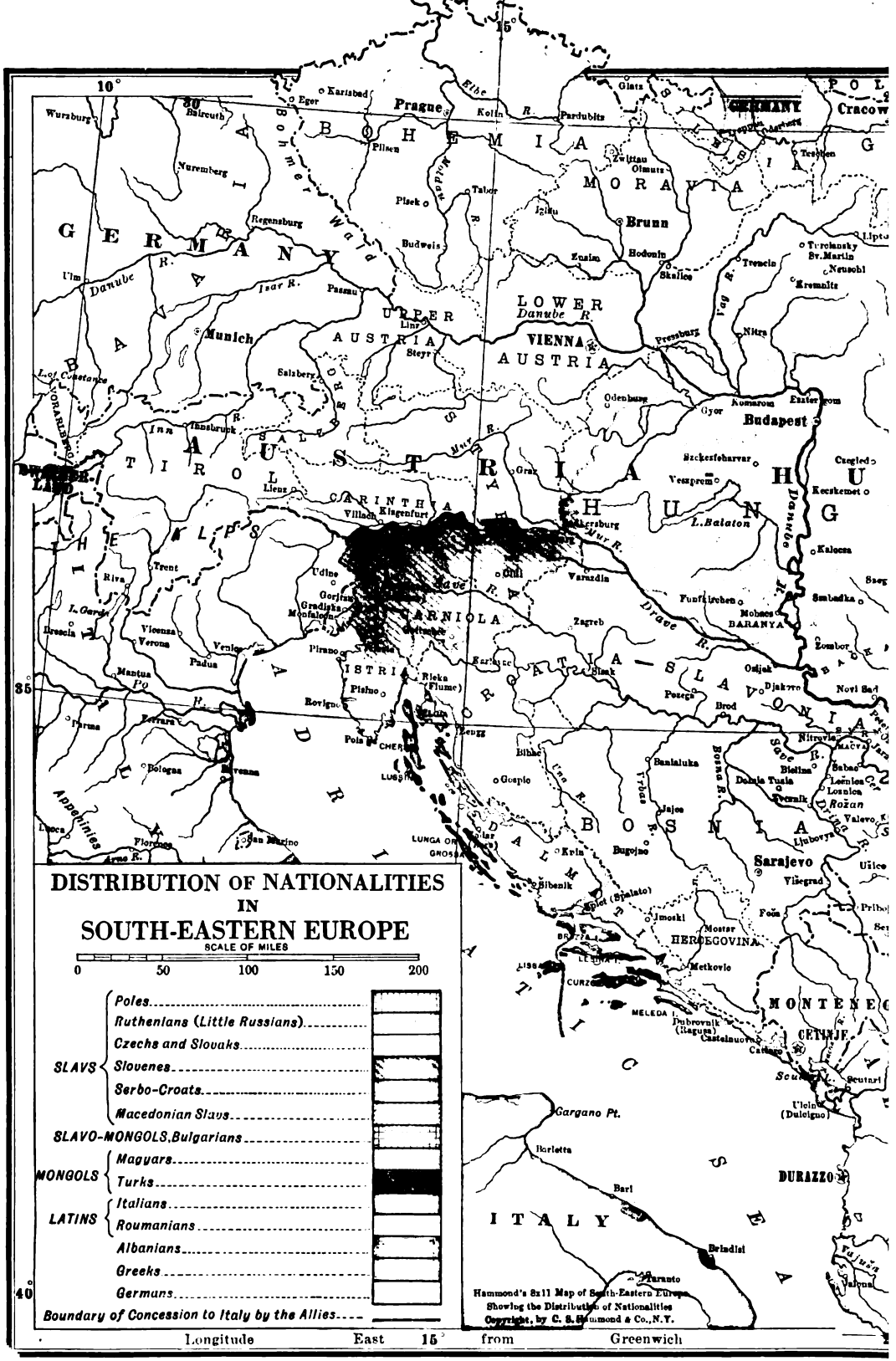




The only Map of Europe which remains as it was in 1914.



The Seething Melting-Pot of Europe.


DISTRIBUTION OF NATIONALITIES
IN
SOUTH-EASTERN EUROPE
SCALE OF MILES
0
50
100
150
200
SLAVS
Poles
Ruthenians (Little Russians)
Czechs and Slovaks
Slovenes
Serbo-Croats
Macedonian Slavs
SLAVO-MONGOLS, Bulgarians
MONGOLS
Magyars
Turks
LATINS
Italians
Roumanians
Albanians
Greeks
Germans
Boundary of Concession to Italy by the Allies
Hammond's 8x11 Map of South-Eastern Europe
Showing the Distribution of Nationalities
Copyright, by C. S. Hammond & Co., N.Y.
GERMANY
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
LOWER AUSTRIA
UPPER AUSTRIA
VIENNA
TIROL
CARINTHIA
CARNIOLA
ISTRIA
CROATIA
SLAVONIA
BOSNIA
HERCEGOVINA
MONTENEGRO
CETINJE
DURAZZO
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
Prague
Munich
Budapest
Sarajevo
Brunn
Gyor
Pressburg
Graz
Zagreb
Sisak
Pola
Rovigno
Udine
Trent
Riva
Venice
Padua
Mantua
Parma
Ferrara
Bologna
Ravenna
Florence
Lucca
San Marino
Pisino
Rieka (Fiume)
Gospic
Bihac
Banialuka
Jajce
Bugojno
Kvin
Sibenik
Spalato
Imoski
Mostar
Metkovic
Dubrovnik (Ragusa)
Castelnuovo
Cattaro
Scutari
Ulcinj (Dulcigno)
Gargano Pt.
Barletta
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
Vienna
Danube R.
Drave R.
Mur R.
Save R.
Elbe R.
Inn R.
Isar R.
Po R.
Arno R.
Appeninies
Bohmer Wald
L. Balaton
L. Garda
L. of Constance
Wurzburg
Bairouth
Nuremberg
Regensburg
Ulm
Passau
Linz
Steyr
Salzberg
Innsbruck
Lienz
Villach
Klagenfurt
Gorizia
Gradiska
Monfalcone
Pirano
Vicenza
Verona
Brescia
Mantua
Pola
Zengg
Karlsbad
Eger
Pilsen
Pisek
Tabor
Budweis
Kolin
Pardubitz
Glatz
Zwittau
Olmutz
Iglau
Znaim
Hodonin
Skalice
Trencin
Turciansky Sv. Martin
Neusohl
Kremnitz
Nitra
Komarom
Esztergom
Odenburg
Szekesfehervar
Veszprem
Czegled
Kecskemet
Kalocsa
Funfkirchen
Mohacs
BARANYA
Zombor
Osijek
Djakovo
Novi Sad
Pozega
Brod
Nitrovic
Bielina
Sabac
Lesnica
Loznica
Rožan
Valevo
Ljubovya
Višegrad
Foča
Pribo
Ušice
Lipto
Teschen
Cracow
Glatz
Kolin
Pardubitz
Zwittau
Olmutz
Iglau
Trencin
Nitra
Komarom
Szekesfehervar
Veszprem
Kalocsa
Smbadka
Novi Sad
Bielina
Dolnia Tuzla
Tvornik
Ulcinj
Valona
Vajuša
Pola
Rovigno
Pisino
Rieka (Fiume)
Gospic
Kvin
Bugojno
Jajce
Imoski
Mostar
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Dubrovnik (Ragusa)
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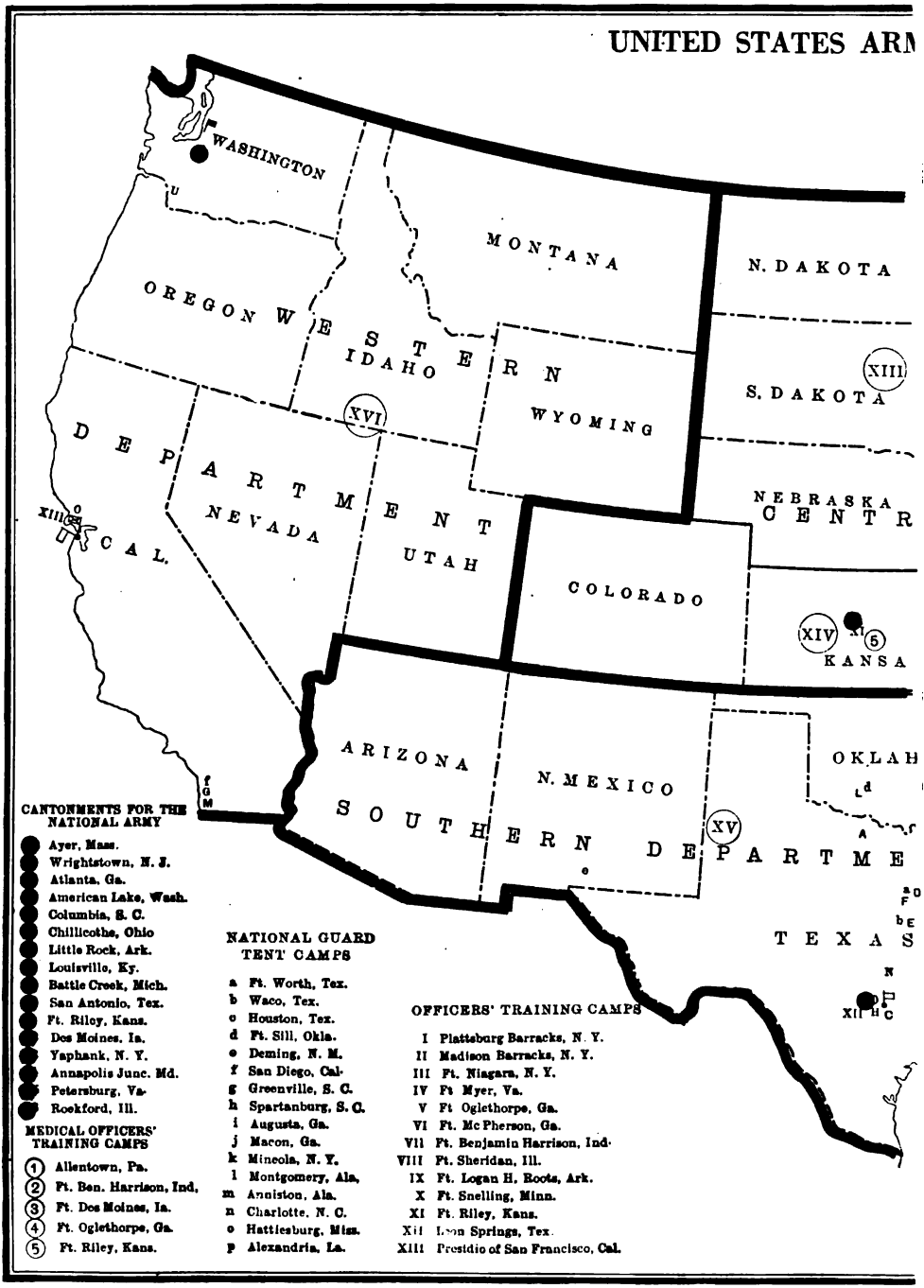
Cattaro
Scutari
Ulcinj (Dulcigno)
Gargano Pt.
Barletta
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
Lissa
Curzola
Meleda I.
Lunga
Grossa
Lucca
Florence
Arno R.
Po R.
Danube R.
Drave R.
Mur R.
Save R.
Elbe R.
Inn R.
Isar R.
Vag R.
Bosna R.
Una R.
Vrbas R.
Drina R.
Sava R.
Vajuša
Ulcinj
Valona
10°
15°
30
35
40°
Longitude East 15° from Greenwich

The "Cock-pit

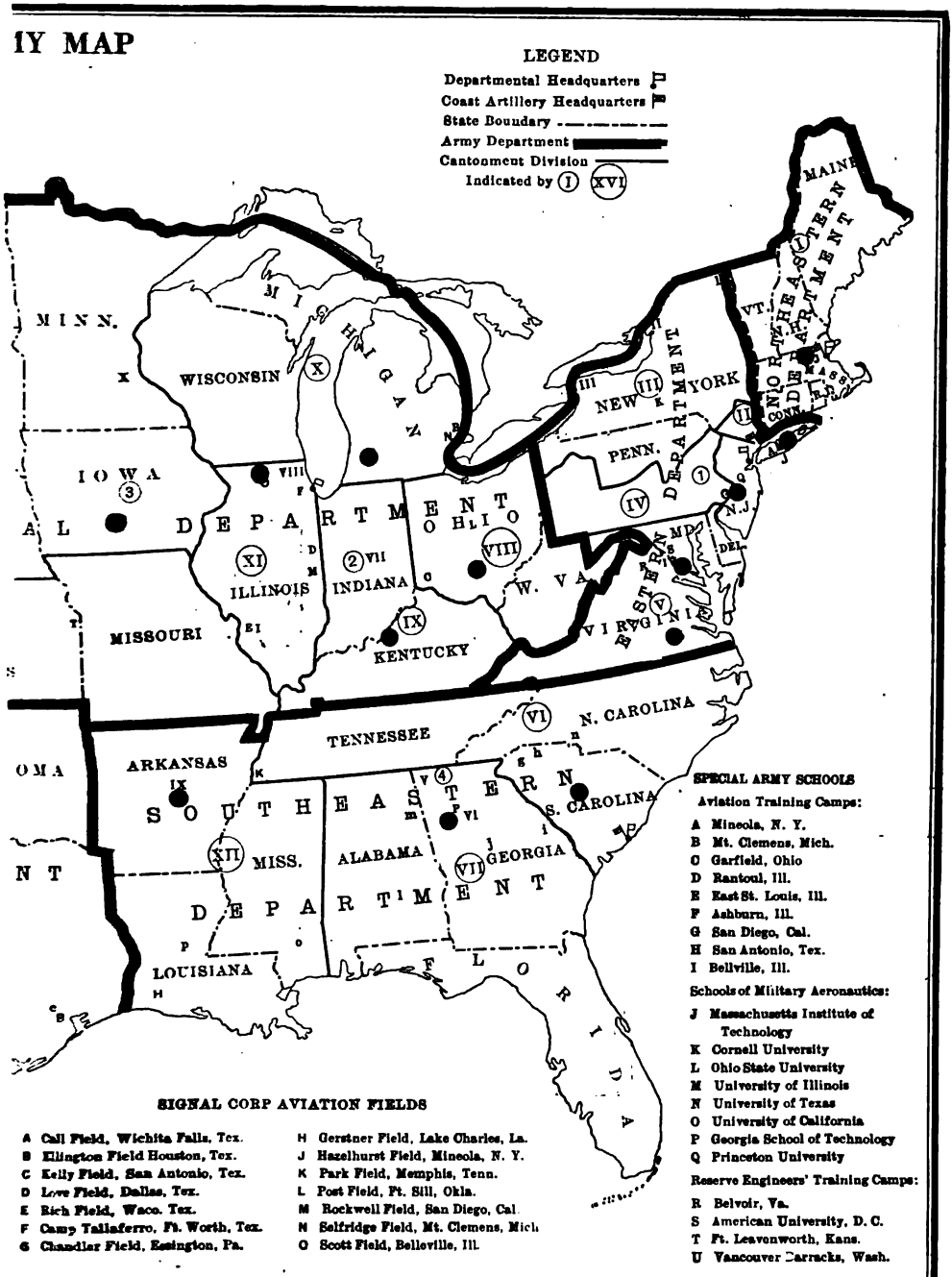
of Europe."

UNIV. OF MICH.



Where the United States

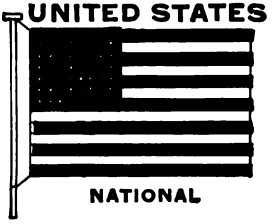
1Y MAP

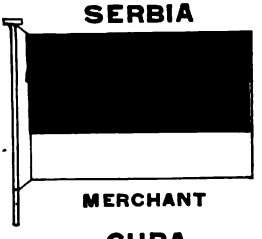


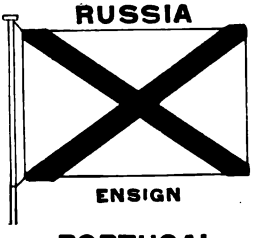
Army is in the Making.

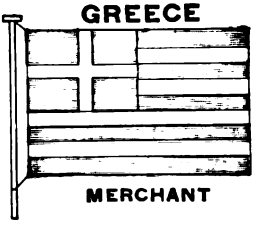
UNIV. OF MICH.

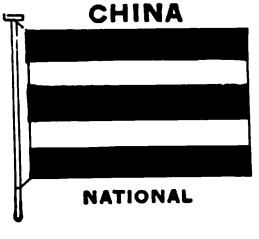
FLAGS OF THE ALLIES

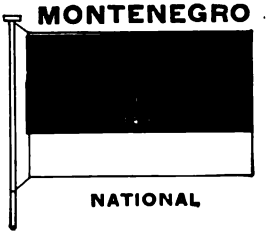












MAINSPRINGS OF THE WAR

Q.—Is the World War really incomparably vaster than any preceding one?

A.—The money cost alone would show that it is. The U. S. Treasury Department's figures of the total expenditure at the close of the third year were nearly ninety thousand millions of dollars. On the then estimated basis of $116,700,000 daily, the direct expense of this war up to March 1, 1918, was practically one hundred and ten billions; whereas all the wars of all the nations from 1793 to 1914 (which includes the terrible Napoleonic wars, the American Civil War, the Franco-Prussian, and the Russian-Japanese) footed up an aggregate of less than quarter of this amount.

Q.—Are we justified in naming this the "World" War?

A.—At the beginning of 1918 practically 93% of the world's population was involved. The fifteen countries still classed as neutrals had a combined population of only 130,000,000; and a quarter of these were the natives of the Dutch East India possessions; whereas the twenty-three countries actually at war had a combined population (including colonials) of over seventeen hundred millions of people. The proportion of the earth's surface left nominally at peace, and the relation of size between the two sides, are strikingly shown in the map in this volume: "The World at War."

Q.—Exactly what was the alignment of nations at the beginning of 1918?

A.—On the side of the Central Powers: Germany, Austria, Turkey, Bulgaria.

On the side of the Entente Allies: Belgium, Brazil, China, Cuba, France, Great Britain, Greece, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Montenegro, Panama, Portugal, Roumania, Russia, San Marino, Serbia, Siam, United States of America.

And the following countries, though not declaring war, had severed relations with the Central Powers: Bolivia, Costa Rica, Egypt, Guatemala, Hayti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Peru, Uruguay.

Q.—How do these opposing forces compare in national power?

A.—The Entente Allies and the United States had 94.4 per cent of the area of the warring nations; 76.3 per cent of the population (even omitting the tremendous Asiatic population included in the British Empire); 78.5 per cent of the men of military age available for service—excluding Africans and Asiatics; 66 per cent of the men actually enrolled in the armies and navies; 80.5 per cent of the national wealth; 83.1 per cent of the national income—considered as the yearly earnings of the peoples.

The combined debt of the Allies was 14.7 per cent of their wealth, that of the Central Powers 28.7 per cent of their wealth. The annual interest charge of the latter was 11.8 per cent of their national income against 4.6 per cent in the case of the Entente Allies.

The surplus food-producing regions of the world were practically all controlled by the Entente, either directly or through command of the seas. The same thing was largely true of the metals and coal.

Q.—How did the war start?

A.—The assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and his morganatic wife in the streets of Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia-Herzegovina, was the direct act that started the conflagration. The crime was committed by a Serbian subject of Austria, and, while there was no evidence of complicity on the part of the Serbian Crown or Government, it was manifestly a result of Pan-Serbian agitation. A month later, July 28, 1914, Austria declared war on Serbia—which precipitated the great conflict.

Q.—Do the best informed students of world politics feel the war could have been avoided?

A.—Hardly. While Great Britain might not have been drawn in if Germany had not violated Belgian neutrality, the feeling from subsequent developments is that the vast conflict would have been merely postponed. For the war at first appeared to be the result of Germany's determination to grasp and make secure her "place in the sun," along lines quite similar to those upon which in the past had been built the British Empire, the French colonial empire, and the tremendous Russian expansion. But during that fateful year of 1917 which brought in the United States it became clear that it had developed into a war of principles.

President Wilson did more than any other one man to show everybody that the struggle had deepened to one affecting the very foundations of international relations; it was a war to bring harmony into the world on principles of justice and freedom, and to create an organization of the world's public opinion that should be stronger for peace and order than any single empire or alliance could be for attaining its ends through military power.

In a word, it became a contest between the ideals of democracy and of autocracy.

Owing to the fact that some countries were in 1914 far more autocratically governed than others, the two conceptions were bound to clash sooner or later.

Q.—Was there one big single war-factor?

A.—Yes. The one great, ever-active agency that has kept Europe feud-torn and armed has been the European practice of leaving international relations in the hands of a very few men—diplomats, foreign secretaries, cabinets and inner monarchical or political circles—instead of dealing with them openly through the representative law-making bodies, such as the British Parliament, the German Reichstag, and so on.

Q.—What was the first international step toward abolishing secret diplomacy?

A.—On January 8, 1918, President Wilson addressed Congress on the basis of a possible world-peace. The very first clause in his program was:

"Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view."

Q.—Had the Russian Revolutionary government not asked the same thing?

A.—The demand for publication of certain secret treaties was raised almost immediately after Czardom was overthrown. The Kerensky government, however, did not apparently deem it wise to publish them, and they were not published until the Bolsheviki under Trotzky and Lenine assumed power. Then they were given to the world, some little time before the President's message was delivered.

Q.—What were the secret treaties?

A.—They were treaties made between Russia and the various Allies after the war began, and they dealt with a general distribution of enemy territory among the allied nations. Thus Russia was to get Constantinople and Armenia. Italy was to get very large accretions of territory, including not only the provinces known as Italia Irredenta, but a great part of the Istrian and Dalmatian domain bordering on the Adriatic, with other possessions in Syria, etc. France was to get Alsace-Lorraine and large tracts of German territory north of it toward the Rhine, while other parts of Rhenish Germany were to be "neutralized."

Q.—What were the great specific pre-war rivalries?

A.—The great specific causes for the great war were:

(1) Germany's immense commercial growth, which produced the imperialistic striving typified by the Pan-Germanism movement and by the two great cries: "A Place in the Sun" and "Der Drang Nach Osten" (The Impulse Eastward).

(2) The growing passion of the Slavic races and nationalities for political power as Slavs (Pan-Slavism).

(3) British control of the world-sea, which bound a huge part of the world together as "The British Empire" (The All-red Belt Around the Earth, as shown on British postage stamps) and the consequent control of nearly the whole colonial area of earth.

(4) French expansion into North Africa, with the Franco-British "understanding," which tended to make the Mediterranean more and more a private sea.

(5) Italian expansion, as expressed by the Italia Irredenta movement and Italian conquest of north African territory.

Q.—What was the German demand for "a place in the sun"?

A.—It was a demand for the same opportunity of expansion and extra-territorial development that other nations had.

Q.—Why did this natural desire become dangerous to world-peace?

A.—Because "places in the sun" were pretty well occupied. "Places in the sun" were mostly colonial, of course, and other nations already had the best colonies. This led the imperialists and expansionists in Germany to preach that (1) other nations had possessed themselves greedily of all the possible colonial areas of the earth; (2) that they had no right thus to monopolize the world to the last-

ing detriment of Germany; (3) that, therefore, if Germany could not obtain her desired "place in the sun" peaceably, it was necessary to fight for it.

Q.—How did Morocco cause general European trouble?

A.—When England and France concluded their treaty for the division of Africa in 1904, the Kaiser at first acquiesced apparently, and Germany seemed to accept the view that considered France's interest in Morocco paramount. The following year, however, the Emperor called personally on the Sultan of Morocco, and assured him that Germany was his protector and would see that his territorial integrity was upheld.

Soon thereafter Germany claimed that France and England, in concluding the African treaty, had violated the convention of 1880, which guaranteed no change of territorial division in Africa without a general conference of European Powers.

Germany forced France and England to hold a conference at Algeciras. The sovereignty of Morocco was partly preserved, and France obtained the right to police the Sultan's territory "in case of revolt." Soon after the conference, France took military action. The Powers were mutually suspicious, and in 1909 Germany warned France that she was violating the treaty of Algeciras. Then Germany made the famous naval demonstration against Agadir with the gunboat *Panther*, and brought Europe to the verge of war. The trouble was composed, and Germany received a million square miles of French Congo.

Q.—What was "Der Drang nach Osten"?

A.—German expansionists, both in the political and in the commercial fields, had begun to look toward the near east—that is, Asia Minor. A specific expression of this "impulse toward the east" was the spectacular project known as the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad.

Q.—What is the meaning of Hegemony?

A.—Hegemony comes from the Greek "hegemonia," and it meant the leadership of one city or state, such as Athens or Sparta, in a group of federated or loosely united states.

In relation to European politics, it means some such dominant position as Bismarck secured for the Kingdom of Prussia over the other States of Germany by the wars of 1864, 1866, and 1870, resulting in the establishment of the German Empire.

Q.—What is Pan-Slavism?

A.—Originally it was an expression of deep sentimental and poetical aspiration of the Slav races and tribes for spiritual unity. About forty years ago it assumed political importance, playing a considerable part in the Balkan rebellions against Turkish rule. Since then it has turned itself against the domination of Slav majorities and minorities everywhere by other nationalities.

Q.—Why did such a noble aspiration endanger peace?

A.—Because diplomats and politicians saw in it a useful instrument. The politicians of the Russian autocracy used it to strengthen their own control within the Empire. The Russian diplomats used it to make a Pan-Slavism outside of the Empire that should in time play its destined part in expanding Russian rule in Europe. The little Balkan diplomats and politicians used it to cover annexationist and other programs.

The German militarist parties were not slow in seeing what an excellent argument this gave them for preaching pan-Germanism—ostensibly for simple self-defence.

Q.—How many Slavs are there?

A.—The Slavs inhabit eastern and southeastern Europe, where they are the great majority of the population, but they are not geographically united. The main stock comprises the Russians, Poles, Czechs, Slovaks, and Ruthenes or Little Russians. In the south, and separated from the northern branch by a solid barrier of Germans, Magyars, and Roumanians, live the Southern or Jugo-Slavs. The Bulgars have usually been included in the Southern Slavs, but they were originally an Asiatic people who have been Slavicized, and since their defeat in the second Balkan war many of them have repudiated the Slav cause. Approximate figures for the race as a whole are:

Russians	100,000,000
Little Russians (Ukrainers)	30,000,000
Poles	15,000,000
Czechs and Slovaks	8,500,000
Slovenes	1,250,000
Croats	2,500,000
Serbs	4,000,000
Bulgars	4,500,000
Total	165,750,000

Q.—What was the foundation of the Italian Irredentist movement?

A.—This, also, was a spiritual and noble striving of the Italian people toward a fine and just unity.

Q.—Just what did the Italian Irredentists desire?

A.—They desired the provinces in the north that were under foreign domination but which contained populations that were Italian or largely Italian.

Q.—Were all these provinces under Austria?

A.—Most of them were. But at one time (though little has been heard of this lately) Italian Irredentism was directed also against the French possession of the stretch of Mediterranean coast that includes the city of Nice.

Q.—Did French expansion into Northern Africa hurt Germany's interest sufficiently to become a cause for war?

A.—In one sense, no. It seems perfectly fair to say that the French Morocco adventure did not injure actual German interests, or at least that it did so only in a small degree. But in another sense it was a very real additional cause toward ultimate war, because it enabled the German imperialists to point to another seizure of world-area and to inculcate in the German people the conviction that they were being gradually walled in.

Q.—What was the original status of Albania?

A.—When Turkey extended well over the Balkan peninsula, Albania was a Turkish Province. After the Balkan War (1913) it was erected as an independent State.

Q.—What happened to it when the great war began?

A.—Prince William of Wied, who had been appointed by the London Ambassadorial Conference in 1913 to rule the country with an International Commission of Control, was driven out, and Albania became a scene for rival native factions. Italy soon occupied portions of it, and was extending her hold when the Austrians broke through Montenegro in 1916, captured the important port of Durazzo, and advanced south as far as Avlona, then held by Italy.

Q.—If the status of Albania is to be decided according to race, what country should have it?

A.—The Albanians appear to have been a race by themselves. From 1431, when the Turks overran the country, they became largely Turkish in ideas and habits, and though they rebelled frequently, the rebellions were against the government rather than against Turkish rule. Indeed, the most formidable rebellions were often led by Turks.

Q.—What is the objection to Albania's autonomy?

A.—None, speaking in accordance with the principle that small nations should have the right of self-determination. The practical obstacle (aside from the desire of Italy and Austria to possess or "protect" the country) is that two-thirds of the population is fanatically Moslem, while the other third is Christian with almost equal fanaticism. Add to this that the Christians again are divided into two not at all friendly sects, Roman Catholic and Greek Catholic, and that the Moslems also have many sects.

Q.—Why should Italy and Austria (or any other country) desire to rule such a difficult country? Is it rich?

A.—Not so far as known. It has an area of only about 11,000 square miles (a little bigger than Maryland), and its population is only about eighty to the square mile. There are few roads, except military roads built since the war. Agriculture is almost non-existent.

Q.—What, then, is its value?

A.—Its value is that it extends along the Adriatic coast opposite Italy and has many harbors. Therefore, it is one of the strategic geographical elements in the rival Austrian and Italian struggle for the control of the Adriatic.

Q.—Did Austria ever own Venice?

A.—She once held all the province of Venetia and Lombardy, but lost them in 1859 when, under Cavour, Sardinia made her successful fight for Italian freedom. Lombardy followed and thus control of the Italian provinces was lost to Austria.

She had scarcely emerged from this struggle, when, in 1864, she went to war with Denmark, and she became joint sovereign over Schleswig-Holstein. This addition to her domain was but nominal, and she lost it two years later, when Prussia humbled her in the war for German supremacy.

Q.—How many Italians are in Dalmatia, Istria, and Fiume?

A.—About 40 per cent of the inhabitants of Fiume are of Italian descent. In Dalmatia, with a population of some 600,000, 3 per cent only are Italian. In Istria, roughly a third of a total population of 350,000 is said to be Italian. While there are only about 60,000 Italians altogether in Austria there are more than 700,000 who speak Italian or modifications of that language.

Q.—What is the "Balance of Power"?

A.—It is a principle whose effective observance began after the fall of Napoleon, when the nations opposed to him deemed that future peace might be assured by preventing any one nation from again becoming over-powerful. France was, therefore, stripped of so much territory that she should never regain the overwhelming influence she once had. The principle was gradually extended.

The theory of the balance of power became the keystone of European politics, and its maintenance has been considered so important in the minds of the statesmen of Europe that no scruples have ever been allowed to stand in the way when it was threatened.

At first the "balance of power" was upheld by the combination of all nations against any one that grew too large. They made occasional treaties to act jointly, but always the established precedent was that if at any time the *status quo* was destroyed, the treaties were void. Thus, if any state, however small, should shift its boundaries, any other state would hold itself free to abrogate existing treaties, and form new treaties to establish a new balance of power.

Q.—What was the Congress of Vienna?

A.—It met to re-make the territorial and political map of Europe after the fall of Napoleon, and it opened on November 1, 1814. England, Austria, Russia and Prussia insisted upon regulating all problems themselves and excluded France from the deliberations. King Louis XVIII, however, succeeded in being admitted with some of the smaller states.

Finland and the Duchy of Varsow (Warsaw) were given to Russia by the Congress.

The Duchy of Posen, part of Saxony and that of Hanover, the principality of Neuchatel, Cologne and Treves, were ceded to Prussia.

Austria got back Istria, Dalmatia, Friuli, Mantua, Venice, Lombardy, Tyrol and Croatia.

The Pope recovered his states.

The house of Bourbon recovered Naples and Madrid.

England obtained the principal French colonies.

Q.—How did British control of the seas make a cause for war?

A.—Because it made the United Kingdom (a European nation with a population not as large as that of Germany) the actual owner of what is in area and population the greater part of the earth: or, at least, having in the past enabled Great Britain to acquire this vast possession, control of the sea has since then enabled Great Britain to hold it and to make what is now known as the British Empire—a domain more than 3½ times as large as the United States with all its outlying possessions, and with a population more than 4½ times as large.

Q.—Did not Great Britain use this power generously?

A.—Yes, very generously. Perhaps no great empire in history has been administered with such a minimum of onerous restrictions on rivals.

Q.—Is the British Empire very old?

A.—Great Britain's hold on the world through her sea-power has given her imperial world-power for centuries, but the "Empire" as an embodied conception is not very old. When Disraeli became Premier of Great Britain for the second time (1874), the chief colonies were Canada and Australia, each of which had a Constitution of its own. Disraeli persuaded Queen Victoria to be crowned Empress of India in 1876. He had already solidified English control in the East by the purchase of the majority stock in the Suez Canal in 1875.

With the Island of Cyprus, obtained after the Treaty of Berlin in 1878, Malta and Gibraltar, England secured control of

the Mediterranean. Disraeli's successors completed the water route in 1882, when, by taking a protectorate over Egypt, they gained the western shore of the Red Sea. England already held the port of Aden on the eastern shore. Aden in itself is an insignificant desert town, but in its strategic value for controlling the Red Sea and the Suez Canal it is almost as important a possession as is Gibraltar. After gaining the Red Sea, the next step in making the "belt of Empire" was to define the whole southeastern coast of Arabia as being in the British sphere of influence.

Q.—Is there an Imperial organization?

A.—In 1875 the Imperial Federation League was formed to promote closer relations with the colonies. Conferences of the ministers of the colonies have been held since 1887, and a permanent Imperial staff of secretaries is kept in London. In 1901 the "League of the Empire" was created.

Q.—What is the political organization of the British Empire?

A.—The colonies are divided into three classes: (1) The self-governing: Canada, Newfoundland, New Zealand, Australia and the Union of South Africa; the power in these is really exercised by a responsible cabinet, although the governor is appointed by the Crown. (2) Crown colonies, in which the lower chamber is elected and the upper chamber and the governor appointed by the Crown; these are the Bahamas, Jamaica, Mauritius and Malta. (3) Colonies in which a Crown governor rules alone—Gibraltar and Saint Helena.

In India, the King as Emperor appoints a governor, called the viceroy, who is assisted by a partly elective council.

British Central Africa, British East Africa, Nigeria and Uganda are protectorates, and in Egypt the British consul-general has practically the powers of a governor.

The most remarkable feature of the English government in Egypt and India is that populations of several hundred millions of believers in Oriental religions, many of them allied to the Turk, are held in control by a few thousand Englishmen specially trained for the colonial service.

Q.—Who are the Prussians?

A.—The original Prussians were a primitive, probably Slavic people, also known as Borussians, coming from south of the Baltic. They were considered barbarians by the Germans of the Middle Ages. These Prussians were conquered by the German Order of Teutonic Knights, who were burghers chiefly from Bremen and Lübeck. The conquest of the Prussians began in the early years of the thirteenth century and lasted for the better part of a hundred years. The invading Germans killed the men of these Balto-Slavic tribes and carried away the women and children into practical slavery. The modern Prussian is a union of these two races.

Q.—Why did other nations fear the Berlin-Bagdad project?

A.—Primarily there were, of course, the intense national-commercial rivalries that exist between all the States of Europe, even when international relations are very friendly. The Berlin-Bagdad railroad was one of the grandiose commercial projects of the earth. Laughed at as a dream when it was begun, it approached completion in a time when commerce was ready for it; and it was realized then that it must inevitably place Germany at a huge advantage.

Behind this direct reason for fear, however, was also the fear of what this railroad might mean to the peace of Europe and the balance of power. The militarist doctrine of the ruling classes, the known plans of powerful German factions for world-dominance, and the menacing methods of German diplomacy, led the European world (and particularly Great Britain) to fear sinister motives behind the commercial project.

Q.—Could a railroad in Asia Minor really threaten Great Britain?

A.—Yes. Apart from the commercial aspects, the German railroad would have jeopardized Great Britain's control of the Persian Gulf and the control of the oil fields of Asia Minor near that gulf. From a military viewpoint, it was an alarming menace against the back-door of India. And the railroad made a very ominous threat against British sea power in a way that is little known. It threatened to divert from Great Britain the big oil-supply of Persia, which country Great Britain had already "acquired"—and oil is essential to a modern navy.

Q.—What is Pan-Germanism?

A.—It was originally a movement that could be better described by the title "Germanism," and in that form devoted itself

almost wholly to form a truly united Germany by obliterating the sectional lines that divided Prussians, Bavarians, Saxons, Wurtemburgers, etc. Gradually, in the hands of jingoes and imperialists, it became a movement for uniting all Germanic peoples under one flag; and finally, under the lead of powerful men, it became a sweeping doctrine that appears to mean anything in the way of annexation of neighboring territories that the leaders happen to think they want. It must be stated, however, that powerful as the movement is, it is strongly opposed by large parties in Germany, especially the Socialists. It gained one great element of strength with the great mass of people through the fear that was aroused in them by Pan-Slavism.

Q.—When did it begin to threaten other nations?

A.—About 25 years ago when the Pan-German League was organized. It was small at first, and attracted as little attention as do scores of "leagues" in this country. But it grew by incessant work. About ten years ago it had come to be a power that foreign nations had to recognize.

Q.—Was it then that Pan-Germanism began openly to preach annexation of neighbors?

A.—Yes. But it must be added that this preaching was largely by extremists, who were bitterly opposed within Germany, and even within the ranks of the Pan-Germanists. The greater strength of the Pan-German teaching with the people was the demand for colonial possessions —the famous "place in the sun."

Q.—What was the difference between the Pan-Germanist and the British Imperialist before the war?

A.—Both were what we call "imperialistic"—meaning a desire for world-empire. The important difference was that the British Imperialists, dealing with possessions practically complete, aimed chiefly at securing and solidifying this vast empire by political internal bonds—that is, they were not endangering the world's peace by seeking any gravely large new conquests. The Pan-Germanist, on the contrary, looking at a world already possessed by others, could not possibly inculcate Pan-Germanism in the minds of the German people without at the same time (whether he wanted to or not) teaching them that sooner or later they must wrest their "share" from hands that already held it.

Q.—Our term for Imperialism is Jingoism, is it not?

A.—Not exactly. The United States has had so little actual teaching of imperialism that we have no native term for it. What Americans understand by jingoism is an exaggerated sense of nationalism, which leads the jingo to assert that his own nation has pre-eminent rights and that anything done by other nations in opposition is an offense which should be punished.

Q.—Is French Chauvinism not somewhat like this?

A.—It is. It was, however, more serious, because, since 1870, the French Chauvinist has had the loss of Alsace-Lorraine as something on which to base a consistent campaign. Therefore, while American jingoism became a political factor only very occasionally, to vanish again with the passing of the occurrence that brought it out, Chauvinism has been a steady and powerful factor in French political life.

Q.—Whence did it get its name?

A.—From one of Napoleon's soldiers who had such unreasoning patriotism that even his comrades laughed at him. His name was Chauvin, and after the fall of Napoleon the French public seized on the name and applied it to the old soldiers who still idolized the Emperor.

Q.—Just what classes in Germany and Great Britain give support to these theories?

A.—All classes, when the originators of the movements succeed in presenting some particularly powerful reason. But if the question means what classes are by nature and thought supporters of these policies, the answer may be: that just as the two policies were much alike, despite the fact that they have caused war, so their protagonists in both nations were much alike, despite the fact that they so bitterly condemn each other.

Q.—What are these protagonists?

A.—Agrarianism (mostly supported by what the world knows now as Junkers) in Germany, and Landlordism in Great Britain. The English equivalent of the German word "Junker" is "Squire." Both classes are land-holders, and most of

the land is rural (agrarian as the Germans call it).

Q.—Why should these classes want foreign expansion?

A.—Specifically for the general reason that national expansion means increased wealth, and that an increased revenue flowing in from foreign holdings will tend to reduce home-taxes, which bear heavily on land. But there is a most powerful psychological reason, also. The land-holding classes of Germany and Great Britain are intensely conservative. For generations they have been, indeed, the bulwark of conservatism. This conservatism is expressed, and always has been expressed, by bitter hostility to any encroachment on vested privilege or established order within.

A corollary to this method of thought is an almost equal hostility to what they consider encroachments from without. Thus they tend naturally to support governments with powerful nationalistic aims.

Q.—What other things strained Anglo-German relations?

A.—There was one mighty factor which was due to neither political policy nor to deliberate enmity. It was the growth of international trade throughout the world. German unity, as produced by the Franco-Prussian War, and the extraordinary development of a commonwealth bound together by an absolutely amazing co-ordination of legislation, executive government, education, industry and labor, changed Germany from an artistic and philosophical nation to a commercial one in practically one generation.

Q.—What did this mean to the rest of the world?

A.—In 1870 when the German Imperial Federation was proclaimed in Versailles amid conquered France, Germany was so negligible commercially and nautically that Great Britain, generally keenly sensitive to rivalry, not only felt no apprehension, but welcomed the new Empire. Thirty years later, with the generation that had witnessed the Franco-Prussian War still alive, Germany was challenging Great Britain's place as the world's leading commercial nation.

Q.—Had Great Britain fallen behind in scientific development or commercial capacity?

A.—Great Britain was abreast of Germany in intelligence and ability. But Great Britain's vast commercial and political machinery was the result of centuries of growth. Its very vastness and power made difficult any swift, radical changes. The German machinery was new, very radically fitted for the modern conditions in which it had been created. In addition it was, by very virtue of its novelty, very compact, and, so to speak, mobile.

Q.—How did this cause military rivalry?

A.—In the ancient historical way. As soon as a German merchant marine was created, a German navy followed as the almost inevitable consequence.

Q.—Had Germany not been a sea-power before 1870?

A.—Germany never had been a sea-power. The so-called German Free Cities, forming the famous Hanseatic League (1241-1630), with Hamburg, Lübeck, Dantzig, and other cities, had owned one of the most powerful mercantile marines in history, but they had no warships that could be called a navy. During all the centuries following the discovery of America, Great Britain's naval supremacy had been challenged seriously only by Spain and France. In 1870 the only naval rival was France.

Q.—What right did Great Britain have to object to Germany's naval building?

A.—No right at all, or all the right in the world, just as Germany had no right at all to build a navy or all the right in the world. It was a simple and straight matter of national interest.

Q.—Were there attempts at peaceable agreement?

A.—There were many. But they all were based on premises that were inexorably antagonistic. Great Britain held that any agreement must be founded on her national policy and the unbroken traditions of her people that the British Navy must be larger than any other. The Germans held that it must be recognized that their power and their mercantile interests demanded a navy at least equal in strength to that of any other nation.

Q.—What justice was there in the British contention?

A.—Complete justice, considering that the world was one in which a final ap-

peal was sure to be the appeal to war. Great Britain at home was an insular nation that could be made wholly and almost instantly helpless by a superior enemy navy. It requires no imagination to visualize what this would mean. With ports blockaded, cables cut, and all her government isolated from the outer world, the British Empire as an Empire might fall to pieces in time of war like a house of cards—not because her Dominions would not wish to help her, but because they would lack a central head, and would lack control of the seas to bring help. Without a mighty navy, Great Britain could be destroyed though not an enemy soldier were landed on her shores.

Q.—Was there similar justice in Germany's contention?

A.—Not to nearly the same degree. The chief assertion that Germany could make was that her commerce would be destroyed in time of war, if there were no German navy adequate to its full protection—that is, a navy strong enough to hold the seas open for German mercantile ships.

We have seen that Germany cannot be crushed by mere sea-power. She can be damaged enormously, as she has been damaged; but she can survive.

Q.—Is it true that the Franco-Russian Alliance was formed immediately after the Franco-Prussian War?

A.—No. A Franco-Russian Entente was first spoken of about 1890, when plans for united military action were discussed between French and Russian generals. In 1891 some sort of a diplomatic protocol was signed about a defensive alliance, and in 1894 a military convention was ratified. It was not, however, until 1897 that France and Russia were officially stated to be allies. There had been a "rapprochement" between the two countries for several years before any direct action was taken.

Balkan events, again, may be regarded as being responsible for the alliance, as they have been responsible for so many occurrences in Europe. The revolution in Eastern Roumelia and the union of that province with Bulgaria, followed by the Serbians' attack on the principality, and their utter defeat by Prince Alexander and his Bulgarians at Slavnitza, caused violent estrangement between Austria and Russia, and brought about the end of the Three Emperors' League (Germany, Russia, and Austria), Russia refusing to renew it when it expired in 1890, and instead formally allying herself with France a few years later.

Q.—Have there been many wars since the Franco-Prussian War in 1870?

A.—There has been hardly a year without war somewhere with some European power engaged in it. During this period, to mention only the more important events, France and Italy have taken North Africa, England has taken South Africa and Egypt, Russia has taken Manchuria and Mongolia, and Japan in turn has taken part of it from her, and England and Russia have taken Persia. Of lesser campaigns there are the taking of part of Siam, the conquest of Madagascar, and the conquest of Indo-China.

Q.—Did not France and England clash on the Nile?

A.—Yes. It was the famous Marchand case of 1896. A French force under Colonel Marchand had been operating along the upper Nile in an attempt to take the territory, when Great Britain hurried a superior force to the scene. France was much humiliated by the fact that her men had been driven out practically at the point of the bayonet and for a time the incident threatened serious consequences.

THE BALKAN POWDER MAGAZINE

Q.—What has made the Balkans a world-menace?

A.—Secret international diplomacy which concerned itself mainly with Constantinople and the Dardanelles, for the reason that these points were among the most vital strategic points of the world both for commerce and war.

The aspects of the diplomatic intrigues have varied widely. First it was Russia against Turkey. Then it became Great Britain against Russia, with Turkey little more than a pawn in the game. With the Berlin-Bagdad railroad scheme, it became Germany against Russia and Great Britain (the latter particularly).

Then there were the modern rivalries of Austria and Italy for the Adriatic coasts of the Balkans. In the course of this diplomacy, the wildly tangled internal feuds of the Balkan people were used for the purposes of the great powers, and thus no concerted effort ever was made to solve problems that threatened the peace of Europe continually.

Q.—Why did Turkish possession of the Balkans have international significance?

A.—Because the Turks thus controlled all the rich eastern part of the Mediterranean. They had all the Greek ports and the Ægean Sea, Greece being a Turkish possession till the War of Liberation (1821-1829). Trade rivalries soon made Turkey and the Balkans a "habit" with European diplomats.

Q.—Did Constantinople play a big part?

A.—Yes. Russian diplomacy had Constantinople for a constant objective.

Q.—Was this the beginning of Germanic counter-intrigue?

A.—No. The German Empire was not in existence when the Balkans first were a contested area for European diplomats. Austria-Hungary was busy defending herself against Prussia on the north and Venetia and other Latin enemies and rivals to the west.

After the German Empire was formed, Bismarck declared that all the Balkans were not worth the bones of a single Pomeranian grenadier.

Q.—Whose diplomacy made the Balkans dangerous in the beginning?

A.—The rival diplomacy of Russia and Great Britain, with Turkey, of course, as a third party. But Turkey's diplomacy was purely defensive, for the Turks had become a weak power after Greece fell away, and Russia and Great Britain were the big ones of Europe. Great Britain feared that Russian access to the Mediterranean would endanger her "road to India."

Q.—Was Great Britain's fear justified?

A.—Many great and wise Englishmen scoffed at the idea; but it is true, certainly, that Russia always had her eye fixed on India, or at least on the Asiatic frontier of India. At any rate it became a tenet, accepted by practically all Englishmen, that Russia must not be permitted to have Constantinople. The result was that British diplomacy in the Balkans directed itself for many years to keeping the door of the Dardanelles locked against Russia.

Q.—What did Russia do?

A.—Russia as a nation did not "do" anything. The Russian people, unlike the English people, had no tenet about Constantinople. Millions of them probably did not know where Constantinople was. But the Russian diplomats were bound to unlock the door. When they were not trying to unlock it by way of the Dardanelles, they were trying to expand through the Balkans and thus reach the Mediterranean over-land.

Q.—Was access to the warm sea the only Russian reason for Balkan intrigue?

A.—No. Russia was land-hungry, for no really adequate and sensible reason, since she already had vast areas that she was not putting to any use. But expansion was an obsession with her diplomats.

Q.—Was Great Britain's fear for India her only reason for opposing Russia?

A.—No. The consideration of commercial rivalry played its part. It is true that

Russia did not appear to be, or to be likely to become, a formidable rival to Great Britain, which then controlled the world's trade. But the human objection of one big nation to giving another big nation any advantage was sufficient. It was simply a part of the world-game for world-power, and the diplomats played it with immense zest even when there was no specific real stake. A "diplomatic victory" was stake enough. And, of course, a diplomatic victory in the Balkans often meant a very real party victory at home.

Q.—Why has Constantinople always been a focus of world-interest?

A.—The great general reason is that from the very beginning it was a focus of commerce—not because it was strictly a commercial city, but because it occupied a position that commanded the avenues of trade between Asia and Europe. This was the richest trade-route known to Europe before the Portuguese discovered the route around the Cape of Good Hope. Even the Norsemen in the old Viking days sought Constantinople. When navigation became scientific, its strategic importance became less and remained so for a considerable period.

Q.—When did Constantinople resume its old diplomatic importance?

A.—When Russia began to strive mightily for an exit to the Mediterranean. Then the Suez Canal was cut. Finally, the progress of railroad building brought grandiose world-plans. The latter phase of modern development instantly re-set Constantinople into its ancient place as the strategic city for Europe-Asia trade, because a great European-Asiatic railroad could best pass through it.

Q.—What Treaty stipulated that Russia should have no warship in the Black Sea?

A.—The treaty of Paris, which ended the Crimean War. It opened the Black Sea to the commercial navies of the world, and closed it to all vessels of war. Thus Russia herself was not allowed to maintain warships there. It further forbade the establishment of arsenals upon the shores of this inland sea. It was indeed to secure this embargo that Great Britain continued to go on fighting after France and Russia were anxious to stop. The treaty was drawn up in 1856. Fourteen years later war broke out between France and Prussia, and Russia, taking advantage of it, repudiated this clause which neutralized the Black Sea, and began to build a fleet there and erect arsenals and make shipyards. It is a suggestive illustration of the manner in which an irksome condition forced on a nation can be got rid of when one or more of those who imposed it become engaged in war, and can no longer spare military force to coerce their former enemy.

Q.—How did European diplomacy affect the Balkan people?

A.—In this devious game of politics, the aspirations of Balkan races, their rivalries, the internal political strifes, their religious prejudices and enmities, and their various and conflicting desires were all played upon by the rival diplomacies. These internal and often petty occasions for unrest were so utilized that in time, instead of being a mere toy for the diplomats, they gave the diplomats sore problems. Thus came the condition that led the British correspondents to devote so much of their writings and speculations to "trouble in the Balkans."

Q.—Is this why Balkan problems never were settled?

A.—It was largely the reason. The internal problems were immensely complex and many of them, it must be said truthfully, probably were insoluble, except as a matter of slow improvement to be achieved by time, education and struggle. All were of a nature that demanded the utmost unselfishness and practical idealism, if the great nations were to be of any true help. The world was not ripe for such idealism. The result was that while many attempts were made to "solve the Balkan problem" honestly and justly, such attempts remained sporadic and the world's rival diplomacies always destroyed any work that was done.

Q.—Did England play a great part in settling the Dardanelles question?

A.—Great Britain, through Lord Beaconsfield, was largely responsible for the revision of the treaty of San Stefano, which had terminated the struggle between Russia and Turkey. That treaty was drawn up while the Russian armies were looking down on Constantinople from the Chatalja heights.

It created a Greater Bulgaria, which in-

cluded Salonika and most of Macedonia. Turkey was, however, left in possession of the Dardanelles, although Russia obtained the right of free passage through the Straits.

The Great Powers insisted upon a revision of the treaty, Great Britain going so far as to send her fleet to the Levant and threaten Russia with war unless she agreed. Russia gave way, and a conference was held at Berlin, where Prince Bismarck and Lord Beaconsfield were the two dominating figures. They worked together against Russia, and gave to Turkey a new lease of life in Europe; depriving Bulgaria of any access to the Ægean and putting Bosnia and Herzegovina under the control of Austria-Hungary. They also made Russia agree not to have any warships on the Black Sea. Years afterward Lord Salisbury, who assisted Lord Beaconsfield on that occasion, made the famous remark that at the Berlin Conference Great Britain had "backed the wrong horse."

Q.—Was British-Russian rivalry active just before the war?

A.—Great Britain had largely withdrawn from very strenuous diplomacy in Turkey and the Balkans.

Q.—What reasons were there for British withdrawal?

A.—British fear of Russian aggression against the Asiatic boundaries of India had been much lessened after Russia's defeat in the Russo-Japanese War. The closer knitting together of her Dominions, as expressed in the great Imperial movement that swept the British world after the South African war, had given her an additional feeling of security. Beyond all this, her attention had to be devoted to a new and very serious rival—Germany, a rival that did not merely threaten a single possession, but threatened all, by challenging British control of the seas.

Q.—Had British diplomacy in the Balkans anything to do with the war?

A.—For some years German diplomacy had been the dominant diplomacy in Turkey and the Balkans, with Russian and Austro-Hungarian diplomacy playing a very dangerous game that was largely their own. German diplomacy concerned itself most with maintaining power in Turkey, developing the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad, and, presumably, laying foundations for an ultimate grip on the Mesopotamian lands. Austria-Hungary and Russia, meantime, were playing for power within and over Balkan States. Italy also entered Balkan diplomacy with a view particularly to the Adriatic coast of Albania.

Q.—Did Pan-Slavism play a large part at this time?

A.—A very large part. Austria-Hungary, of course, charged that the Pan-Slav propaganda was Russia's work. The truth probably was that the Pan-Slavic movement, undoubtedly sincere and patriotic, was encouraged by Russian secret diplomacy for its own ends; and that actually Austria-Hungary, by stupid attempts at repression, helped to direct Pan-Slavism against herself.

Q.—Once we heard continually of Macedonia. What part did it play as a cause for the war?

A.—No direct part. Macedonia occupied world attention because of the struggle to throw off Turkish domination, and this struggle had a chief part in bringing a union of Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro against Turkey. The war of 1912-1913 followed, and Turkey lost the greater part of her Balkan territory. The Balkan Allies, however, fell out over the division of the conquered territory, and particularly over Macedonia.

"National aspirations" played the greatest part in the quarrel. Each of the involved nations alleged that its own nationals inhabited contested parts of the province. Bulgaria declared that Greece and Serbia were trying to take parts that contained purely Bulgarian population, and war began June, 1913.

Q.—What was the result of this Second Balkan War?

A.—This war laid the direct foundation that, in turn, led to the present alignment of Bulgaria with the Central Powers. Roumania, which had taken no part in the war against Turkey, declared war on Bulgaria, joining Greece and Serbia.

Q.—What forces were engaged in the Balkan War?

A.—The exact numbers are not known. The Balkan Allies took the field with 655,000 men, the Turks with 368,000, but far more men were engaged as the war went on. The total loss in the two wars is estimated at 348,000 killed and wounded; the cost was $1,225,000,000.

Q.—Was Roumania interested in Macedonia?

A.—Not directly. Roumania lies north of Bulgaria, and none of her territory is anywhere near Macedonia, which lies south and southwest of Bulgaria.

Q.—Then why did Roumania join in that war?

A.—Roumanian patriots hold that Roumania did it to punish Bulgaria for treacherously attacking Greece and Serbia. Bulgarians hold that Russia, fearing a great Bulgaria, encouraged the same fear in Roumania.

Q.—Was there division of territory after this war?

A.—Bulgaria lost all of the Macedonian territory that she had coveted, except for a small strip that gave her limited access to the Ægean Sea. Roumania took from her a strip of territory on the Black Sea, the Dobrudja.

Q.—What did Greece and Serbia win?

A.—Greece won that part of Macedonia which contains the Gulf of Saloniki with the important port of that name. Serbia got a part of Macedonia that contains the city of Monastir, and brought her frontiers down to the Greek frontier.

Q.—How did this affect the situation in the Great War?

A.—It made it impossible for the Balkan States to form a united front of neutrality. Distrusting each other, they offered a rich field for the secret diplomacies of the belligerents. Greece was urged on the one side to aid Serbia on the ground that a more or less definite treaty obligation compelled her to do so. The other side worked to keep Greece neutral. Russia worked on Roumania to attack Austria-Hungary, and the Central Empires worked to keep Roumania neutral by raising a Bulgarian menace.

Q.—Why were the Central Powers content merely to keep Roumania neutral?

A.—They had nothing that they could offer as the price of military assistance. Roumanian aspirations were for a part of Transylvania, that portion of far eastern Hungary separated from Roumania by the Carpathians. Austria-Hungary had not the slightest intention of losing this. The only other territory that could have been offered to Roumania by the Central Powers would have been the Russian province of Bessarabia, lying along Roumania's northwest boundary. As the Central Powers held none of that territory, an offer of it would have been rather empty—too much in the manner of "you may have it if you'll take it."

Q.—Are the Roumanians Slavs?

A.—No. They proudly claim to be the sole descendants of the ancient Roman Empire, which flourished at Constantinople until its fall in 1453. Being surrounded on all sides, there has been a large Slav infiltration to the Roman blood, and the stock is not a pure one. Under the administration of Charles and Queen Elizabeth (the widely known Carmen Sylva), the country grew into a prosperous agricultural region. Bucharest became a "miniature Paris of the Balkans."

The Roumanians are so insistent on their Latin origin that they object to the new spelling "Rumanian," because it leaves out the "o" that indicates their Roman blood.

Q.—How long has Roumania been a separate nation?

A.—Roumania was the first state to establish its freedom from Turkish dominion when the principalities Moldavia and Wallachia became autonomous at the end of the Crimean War (1856). Five years later the two territories united and elected Prince Cuza, a Roumanian noble, to rule them. He was forced to abdicate in 1866. Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was then invited to rule, and accepted.

Q.—What kept Greece neutral?

A.—The Allies have always held that Greece was kept neutral by the intense Germanicism of King Constantine. Constantine, however, maintains that he realized from the beginning that the Central Powers possessed military superiority, and that Greece would have been crushed uselessly had she joined the Allies.

Q.—Why did Greece not join the Central Powers?

A.—Constantine maintains that it was due to his genuine desire for keeping Greece out of the war. But Constantine is one of the very talented military chiefs of Europe, and he, no doubt, realized that the Central Powers could not feed Greece,

while the Allies could starve Greece by blockade and, probably, force an invasion.

Q.—What was Bulgaria's position?

A.—Bulgaria was afraid of Roumania, and bitterly antagonistic to both Roumania and Serbia. This antagonism far outweighed her antagonism to Greece. She wanted to get the Dobrudja back from Roumania and her desired share of Macedonia from Serbia.

Q.—How did this affect belligerent diplomacy in Bulgaria?

A.—It gave the Central Powers a decided advantage. They could well afford to promise Bulgaria all of Serbian Macedonia, for in this case they were offering enemy territory, and Bulgarian military men could see that it could be conquered with absolute certainty, given a concerted drive through Serbia. The Allies, on the other hand, could not well promise Bulgaria any territory that belonged to Serbia, one of their own allies. Nor could they well offer Bulgaria any extension of territory into Greek Macedonia.

Q.—How did the Allies try to counter the Central Powers' diplomacy in Bulgaria?

A.—Largely by endeavoring to bring in Greece and Roumania on their side. This would have placed Bulgaria between two fires, as in the second Balkan War.

Roumania made it evident that she was prepared to act, provided she was assured of complete security and support. This could not be guaranteed unless Greece also joined the Allies, so that Bulgaria, pinched between Roumania and Greece, should be made harmless or find it wise to ally herself with them against the Central Empires.

Q.—Did Greek refusal to enter the war really defeat allied diplomacy?

A.—It did. It led Roumania to adopt a waiting game, and it made Bulgaria feel safe and bold. The Allies were thus forced at last to play the first hand. On October 4, 1915, Russia declared war on Bulgaria. On the next day the Allies occupied the Greek Macedonian port Saloniki and landed their forces. On October 14 Bulgaria declared war on Serbia.

Q.—Did this bring Roumania in?

A.—It did not. Simultaneously with the occupation of Saloniki by the Allies, the Central Powers began a terrific drive through Serbia. Bulgaria began to drive from the other direction, and the result was such an overwhelming campaign, with such a swift and spectacular complete victory, that Roumania retained strict neutrality.

Q.—Do you mean to say that the Balkan peoples cold-bloodedly looked for the best bargain?

A.—By no means. The foregoing applies only to the diplomats and to the secret diplomacy of the situation. The people of Greece, Bulgaria, and Roumania were actuated by the same honestly patriotic desires as are the people of other nations. Unfortunately, a large part of the Balkan population is peasantry, brave, devoted, but not well-read or much versed in government. This left the policies almost wholly in the hands of rulers or cabinets.

Q.—Why did Roumania finally enter the war?

A.—The Roumanians declare that Russia forced Roumania to do so, and then failed to support her, leaving her to be crushed by the Central Powers after a tragically brief campaign. Roumania declared war on Austria-Hungary August 27, 1916, simultaneously with Italy's declaration of war on Germany. Germany declared war on Roumania the next day, and, 103 days later (December 6), Roumania's capital, Bucharest, was in the hands of the Central Powers.

Q.—What did the Allies offer Greece in exchange for her assistance at Gallipoli?

A.—According to M. Venizelos, Sir Edward Grey offered a long strip of the coast land of Asia Minor, from Cape Phineka to the Gulf of Adramyti. In addition to military help, Greece was asked to give, in exchange for this new territory, the port of Kavala to Bulgaria. Greece was to be confirmed in her occupation of the Turkish islands, Lemnos, Mitylene, Thasos, Samothrace and Chios. After Bulgaria went to war Cyprus was offered to Greece as a further inducement to join the Allies. On the continued refusal of the Greek King Constantine, Great Britain took Cyprus.

Q.—How many people live in Roumania?

A.—The census of 1912 gave the population at 7,500,000. The area of the king-

dom is 53,689 square miles. The peace strength of the army was 100,000; the war strength is put down at over 500,000, of which some 225,000 would take the field. When the Roumanians invaded Bulgaria in 1913, they used their standing army only. The artillery was armed with Krupp guns.

Q.—What religions do the Central Allies profess?

Country	Roman Catholic	Protestant	Greek Church	Mohammedan
Germany	24,000,000	38,000,000	.....	.....
Austria	21,000,000	500,000	3,000,000	.....
Hungary	10,000,000	3,000,000	5,000,000	.....
Bulgaria	30,000	17,000	3,500,000	650,000
Turkey	60,000	800,000	80,000	10,000,000
	55,090,000	42,317,000	11,580,000	10,650,000

Q.—What are the religions of the Entente Allies?

Country	Roman Catholic	Protestant	Greek Church	Mohammedan
Untd. Kingdom	6,000,000	39,000,000	.....	.....
France	39,000,000	600,000	.....	.....
Russia	12,000,000	4,000,000	100,000,000	14,000,000
Italy	35,000,000	.....	.....	.....
Belgium	7,500,000	28,000	.....	.....
Serbia	.....	.....	3,500,000	.....
Portugal	6,000,000	.....	.....	.....
San Marino ..	10,000	.....	.....	.....
Montenegro ...	.....	.....	300,000	15,000
British Dom...	4,200,000	9,000,000	.....	.....
	109,710,000	52,628,000	103,800,000	14,015,000

The above list omits all reference to the Indians, Algerians and other native races ruled by Britain, France and Italy, also to the Japanese.

Q.—Did the Kaiser open a church in the Holy Land in Franciscan costume?

A.—He made a visit to Palestine in 1898 and on that occasion was present at the consecration of the German Protestant Church of the Redeemer. By special arrangement with the Sultan he had obtained a plot of ground very near the Holy Places, which he presented to the German Catholics. He himself did not consecrate the church, nor did he don Franciscan garb when he handed over the plot of land to the Catholics. His trip to Turkey was made in order to give an impulse to German influence in the East. In fact, the foundations of the German Alliance with the Turk were laid on that occasion.

AUSTRIA AND THE SLAVS

Q.—What were the terms of the Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria and Italy?

A.—The clauses have never been published, but it is universally accepted that the Alliance was entirely defensive in its purpose. Prince von Bülow, formerly Chancellor of Germany, stated that the alliance between Italy, Austro-Hungary and Germany was an instrument conservative in its tendencies and founded to maintain the European status quo. Italy held that as it was a defensive agreement, Germany violated that agreement when she became the aggressor in this war. A week before the outbreak of the war, in July, 1914, Austro-Hungary and Germany were warned by Italy that, in the opinion of Rome, the Austro-Hungarian demands upon Serbia were an infraction of the Triple Alliance, and Italy from the beginning refused to join in the war purposes of Austria and Germany.

Q.—What was the general origin of Serbo-Austrian enmity?

A.—Pan-Slavism fundamentally; but specifically there had grown a most powerful feeling of nationalism in Serbia after the second Balkan War, when Serbia had expanded into Macedonia. The Pan-Slavic movement thus acquired a controlling character of Pan-Serbism—that is, from being the large general demand for the unity of Slavic people, it had become a movement for extension of Serbian sovereignty over Serbish people. This created a Serbian demand for the incorporation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with a "window on the Adriatic."

Q.—Was there ever a great Serbian Empire?

A.—There was, but it lasted only nine years. It was formed by conquest by the great Serbian hero Stephen Dushan (1355), and almost as soon as he died, the Serbian Empire dissolved again. It had spread far over the Balkans, but the entire Balkan peninsula was overrun by the Turks before the end of the century. It remained in bondage for almost four hundred years until the Turkish Empire began to break up at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

Serbia then obtained autonomy under the noted Milosh Obrenovich in 1830 and, after changes of dynasty between the rival houses of Obrenovich and Karageorgevich, her status was settled by the Treaty of Berlin in 1878. Russia at that time refused to aid her, and Prince Milan (later King Milan) was led to make terms with Austria, who procured for him recognition as an independent state.

Q.—What territory do the Serbians claim?

Prince Lazarovich-Hrebelianovich, a prominent Pan-Serb, said in 1909 that their claim was as follows:

Independent Serbian Lands.

Kingdom of Serbia.....	2,923,000
Principality of Montenegro...	280,000

Serbian Lands under Foreign Domination.

Bosnia-Herzegovina (under Austria-Hungary)	1,713,000
Dalmatia (under Austria)....	667,000
Istria (under Austria).....	133,000
Croatia-Slavonia (under Hungary)	2,334,000
Banat and Batchka (under Hungary)	872,000
Old Serbia (under Turkey)..	1,376,000
	10,298,000

Q.—How many nationalities are there in Austria-Hungary?

A.—An idea may be gained from the fact that on some of the paper money of the Empire the denomination and value are printed in about twelve languages. There are some eighteen groups that lay claim to "nationality." The kingdom of Bohemia is overwhelmingly Slav and demands recognition as such. Trieste is almost a pure Italian city; lower Tyrol is Italian, and the townsfolk of Dalmatia are Italians. The districts of Carniola and parts of Carinthia are Slav. Hungary is ruled by Magyars, but within its limits are millions of Slavs. Croatia, which is pure Slav, possesses a would-be autonomous local government. The "Hungarian" seaport of Fiume is a pure Slav city.

Q.—How did Austria and Serbia come to blows?

A.—On June 28, 1914, the Arch-Duke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne, and his wife, were assassinated in Sarajevo, Bosnia. The assassin and some of his accomplices were

taken and the Austro-Hungarian government charged that the Serbian government was directly responsible for the agitation that had led to the deed and that at least some Serbian officials had guilty cognizance of the conspiracy itself.

Q.—Was this true?

A.—It appears to have been proved beyond much doubt that weapons used in the assassination had come from the government arsenal in the Serbian capital, Belgrade. It appears to be reasonably certain, also, that at least one prominent Serbian army officer was directly implicated. The Serbian government tried to apprehend him, but failed. Austria-Hungary claimed that the failure was deliberate. It must be added, however, that the internal struggles of Czechs, Bohemians and Croats against Magyar and Austrian domination had been so violent for years that Serbian incitement alone cannot be held to be fully responsible.

Q.—What was the direct cause for Austro-Serbian enmity?

A.—The possession by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina, which the Serbians claimed were inhabited by Slavs.

Q.—How true is this?

A.—It is not a question easily answered. The Statesman's Year Book (London, 1917) says: "The nationality is Croato-Serbian." Croatians are Slavic, but they are distinct from Serbians.

The 1912 religious census casts some light on the constitution of the population. It shows 856,000 Serbian Orthodox, 627,000 Mohammedan, 452,000 Roman Catholic, 9,000 Greek Catholic, 7,000 Evangelical, 13,000 Jews.

Q.—Who owned Bosnia and Herzegovina originally?

A.—Turkey owned them, but there were many rebellions against Turkish rule. Many of these were, however, not so much on national or racial lines as on religious lines, being based largely on the desire of the Christian populations to free themselves from Moslem rule.

Q.—When did Austria-Hungary get the provinces?

A.—After Russia defeated Turkey in the war of 1877-1878. In the settlement known as the Congress of Berlin (1878), Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under loose Austro-Hungarian control.

Q.—Was the Congress of Berlin a German Congress?

A.—No. It was a European congress, and Berlin simply was the place selected by the parties to it. Germany claimed no particular interest in it, except as far as it affected the balance of power in Europe. Bismarck, however, being the leading statesman of the time, was looked to by all sides as mediator.

Q.—Who were the principals at the Congress of Berlin?

A.—Russia, Turkey and Great Britain, with Turkey playing only such part as a badly defeated nation might expect to play. The struggle was between Great Britain and Russia.

Q.—What was it about?

A.—Russia wished to create a powerful Slav State, Bulgaria, out of Turkish territory, leaving Turkey only a small area around Constantinople for her dominion in Europe. Great Britain, fearing Russian domination of Constantinople, opposed this plan stiffly. Austria also feared Russia as a neighbor, even indirectly, and added her protest. The result was a defeat for Russia, and a return of most of the Balkan territory to Turkey. As a mere incident, Bosnia and Herzegovina, which had been left in the adjustment as isolated fragments, were placed under the protection of Austria "for administration and military occupation."

Q.—Was there any objection to this by anybody?

A.—None at all by any European power except Russia and Turkey. There was at that time no feeling, even by enlightened political students, against the transfer of minor territories and populations.

Q.—Why did the Powers not hand the two territories to Serbia?

A.—The independence of Serbia from Turkey had only just been established by this same Treaty or Congress of Berlin. The country was in a decidedly backward state, and it appears to have occurred to nobody that the disposition of Bosnia and Herzegovina might have been improved upon.

Q.—Did Austria-Hungary rule the provinces badly?

A.—On the contrary, Austria's rule of these provinces is one bright spot which

even her enemies can afford to acknowledge. When they came into the hands of Austria they were without roads, without schools, without any of the industrial and social machinery that we view as a part of civilization. There are now about 1,000 miles of railroad and 2,000 miles of telegraph, with a good system of highways. In 1912 the educational statistics showed universal free elementary instruction (compulsory to large degree) with 1,870 lower-grade schools and about 75 higher schools, training schools, religious schools and other similar establishments. In villages practical agriculture is taught.

Q.—How was the Bosnia-Herzegovinian population treated politically?

A.—In 1910 a Constitution was proclaimed, and the right of universal suffrage was granted to elect a Diet that should deal with provincial finance, taxes, railways, public works, police, and civil and criminal law. The Diet's legislation, however, was subject to Austrian or Hungarian veto.

Q.—Why were there such disorders?

A.—Austria-Hungary asserts that there were no genuine objections to Austrian rule, but that the agitation was an artificially fostered one, and that the Serbian government was directly responsible for it.

Q.—Was this true?

A.—It is probably true in part. As stated above, the investigation of the assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand in Sarajevo, capital of the provinces, developed serious evidence proving beyond reasonable doubt that weapons used by the assassin had come from the government arsenal in Belgrade, the capital of Serbia, and that at least some Serbian army officers were implicated. It must be added, however, that the internal struggles of Bohemians, Croatians and Slavs against Austrian and Magyar domination had been violent for many years. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the Bosnia-Herzegovinian unrest had ample cause without Serbian assistance.

Q.—What caused the first big opposition to Austria?

A.—In 1908 the Imperial Government of Austria-Hungary was extended over the provinces by decree. In other words, Austria-Hungary took into her actual possession the territories that had been placed into her care, for more or less limited control, thirty years before. Those thirty years had seen a great awakening of the political sense among all the people of Europe, and especially among the Slavs, Croatians, Bohemians, and other Allied races. Therefore, while in actuality the change was slight (since Austria had been sovereign to all intents and purposes), the people's attitude toward it was the difference between a Europe of 1878 and a Europe of 1908. It was the new generation of Bosnians and Herzegovinians who responded to the stirrings of race and political thought.

Q.—Then would there have been the assassination of the fateful June 28, 1914, under any circumstances?

A.—Perhaps not. But the feeling that made groundwork for that violence was something far too great to be merely the effect of intrigue. The struggle of the Slav-Croat races is one of the big facts of history, and nothing can stop it till it works out some sort of fulfillment. Serbian intrigue (if there was any) did not cause it. It simply took advantage of it.

Q.—Just what are the Slavs?

A.—Originally they were, presumably, Asiatic, but that is of interest only to the ethnologists. The big contemporaneous fact is that the Slav races of eastern and southeastern Europe, different though they be in appearance, thought, manners and even speech, constitute the greater part of the population of that region, and are inspired by a great ambition for racial unity.

Q.—Are the Slavs mixed in with other populations?

A.—They are. It is this fact that has made a great deal of the political trouble in the past and that will make much in the future, unless a most enlightened method is found of protecting minorities. If the time-honored majority-rule is accepted, then there will always be a very large population which happens to be in the electoral minority, that will be utterly dominated by another race which happens to have the majority.

Q.—Would this mean Slav domination?

A.—In most regions it would; but in some it would mean the domination of

the Slavs by other racial masses—such as in many electoral districts of Hungary, where Magyar dominates Slav politically.

Q.—Why should the Slavs not form one big nation?

A.—They cannot very well. They are not geographically united. Between the various Slav masses lie masses of other races—the Magyars and Hungarians who, although they, too, were originally Asiatic, have a racial spirit quite different from that of the Slav; the Roumanians, who claim to be Latins, by descent from ancient Roman populations; the Bulgarians, who once held to the Slav racial tradition, but are inclined to break with it and assert a definite race-culture of their own.

Q.—Are the Slavs divided by other than geographical reasons?

A.—They are divided into groups of age-long existence, such as the Russian Slavs of the north, the so-called White Russians of the center, the Little Russians, the Ruthenians of southern Russia, the Poles, Slovaks and Czechs of Central Europe and the southern Slavs (Serbs, Croats, Slovaks), who have in recent years become known by the collective name of Jugo-Slavs.

Q.—Why are the Bohemians anti-German?

A.—They are anti-German because they desire that Bohemia shall be a Bohemian-controlled kingdom in accordance with its ancient traditions. Their claim is that under the existing methods of political representation the German and Magyar votes permit a non-Bohemian minority to rule the Bohemian majority.

They do not, as a whole, desire separation from Austria, but they do desire that Bohemia shall be a great Bohemian power within the Empire, and that the Empire shall not rule its internal affairs.

Many of the ardent Bohemians demand not only autonomy, but actual separation and complete independence.

Q.—What is a Czech?

A.—Czech is a corrupt form of Cech. Cechy is the Bohemians' name for their country. Those who dwell there are, therefore, Cechs. The Germans call the place Böhmen. 4,250,000 Czechs dwell there and 2,470,000 Germans. 1,870,000 Czechs live in the neighboring Margravate of Moravia and 720,000 Germans.

Q.—Have the Czechs actively opposed the war?

A.—The Czech members of the Reichstag refused to refrain from hostile demonstrations against the war, and refused to support the government in applying the reforms it contemplated in Galicia, Bohemia, and in the southern Slav regions. It is for this reason that the Reichstag was not called together for a long time during the war. Reports from Switzerland were that serious riots occurred in various towns in Austria occupied by Czech regiments, and it was necessary to call upon German and Hungarian troops to master the rebels. The Czech National Alliance in Great Britain opened an office in Piccadilly Circus for the distribution of literature explaining the problems of the Czechs, and their aspiration for independence from Austria. In the office was an honor roll of the Czechs serving in the British army.

Q.—Does Austria recognize her various nationalities at all?

A.—The attempt to centralize and Germanize the Austrian Empire as a whole has been twice made—once under the Emperor Joseph II, toward the end of the eighteenth century, and again under Francis Joseph, after the suppression of the revolution of 1848. In each case the attempt failed, and it was finally abandoned as impracticable.

Hungary had always impetuously retained its old liberties under the hegemony of the Magyars. By the compromise of 1867 the dual form of the monarchy was definitely fixed. The rights of the various races in the Empire were recognized under this adjustment. In Hungary, for instance, the Croatians were recognized as a separate entity, under their own Ban, or governor, their separate diet, and their distinct machinery of local and provincial administration.

In Austria proper the constitution of 1867 created a central parliament in Vienna and left a measure of autonomy to the old provinces.

Q.—Have the Austrian Slavs gained political power at all?

A.—The tangible result is the present complexion of the Reichstag in Vienna. So long as the franchise was based upon property qualifications, the votes of the landed proprietors kept a disunited German majority in the Reichstag, but the granting of universal suffrage a few years ago resulted in the return of a Slavic ma-

jority to the imperial legislative chamber.

Q.—Are the various Austrian nationalities allowed their own language?

A.—One of the articles of the constitution guarantees to every nationality the free use of its language "in word and writing." This was put in to assure to each race the use of its language in its educational system, from the primary school to the university, in the diets, in the provincial legislatures and in the administration, excluding only the ministries at Vienna, and in the courts with the sole exception of the Supreme Court in the imperial capital.

Even to this last reservation in favor of a central authority an exception is made. In Polish litigation the entire process of litigation and judicature, including the highest court, may be carried on in the Polish language.

Q.—What language is used in the Austro-Hungarian army?

A.—One language only—German. This arrangement is based on the practical consideration that an army made up of many races would be handicapped if it did not have a common language of command and communication.

THE TRAGIC WOUND (ALSACE - LORRAINE)

Q.—What nation owned Alsace-Lorraine originally?

A.—Originally the two provinces were distinct, Lorraine being the only important one historically. It is only in very modern times that they have become linked under one name. The original possessors were Germanic tribes of the Rhine and these lost them to the Romans, who, for many centuries, held all the Rhine provinces of what is now Germany and all of Gaul and Belgica (what are now France and Belgium). Under Roman rule the land containing Alsace-Lorraine was known as Germania Superior.

The Romans were replaced as rulers by the Franks, a Germanic race which, in the course of its long centuries of sway, drew into itself the best blood of the Gauls and also of the original Celtic inhabitants of what is now France. This Frankish empire reached its height under Charlemagne, whom French history claims as a French hero, while German history claims him as a German. He sprang from the rulers of the Rhenish territory known as Austrasia.

Q.—How did Lorraine get its name?

A.—It was named for Lothar, one of the Merovingian line of kings, whose greatest was Charlemagne. The ancient name for it is Lotharingia, the name still retained by the Germans, who to-day call the province Lothringen.

Q.—What was Alsace-Lorraine under Charlemagne?

A.—Under the Merovingian ancestors of the great king it was a duchy attached to the Kingdom of Austrasia. After Charlemagne's time, when the huge Frankish empire began to crumble, it became a Countship, and remained so for many years till it was restored as a Duchy after the death of King Henry I of Germany.

Q.—Is it true that Austria once owned the territory?

A.—Yes. About the time of the Crusades (twelfth century), the Duchy of Lotharingia was a powerful part of the Roman Empire of the Germanic and Italian States, under the hereditary rule of the Hohenstauffens, then the most powerful hereditary house in Europe, occupying the position afterward reached by the Hapsburgs and later by the Hohenzollerns. In 1273 Austria succeeded to the Imperial throne of the Roman Empire, and thus succeeded also to the sovereignty of Lorraine, or Lotharingia, as it was called then.

Q.—Was Lorrainian territory then the same as now?

A.—It was larger. It contained a part of what is now French Lorraine. At about the time of the discovery of America, it thus had within it the cities of Verdun and Nancy. France (then known as the Kingdom of Francia) was much smaller than it is now. From the tenth to the fourteenth centuries the river Meuse (now the scene of such hard fighting) formed a considerable part of the boundary between the Roman Empire and France.

This huge German-Austrian-Italian empire was so shaped that while Francia contained all of the Belgian coast and part of the present Dutch coast in the north, it narrowed the French possessions in a southerly direction so that on the Mediterranean coast the North Italian part of the Roman Empire possessed a good part of what now is the French Riviera, with the cities of Toulon and Marseilles. It is this ancient possession which gave foundation to the early claims of modern Italy to the French city of Nice.

Q.—When did French territory increase easterly?

A.—From the middle of the sixteenth century till after the famous Thirty Years' War in Germany, which began in 1618 and lasted till 1648. During these years the German territory was devastated from the Danube to the Baltic; and Bohemian, Austrian, Swedish, Spanish, Italian, Dutch, Danish and French troops fought their battles through its length and breadth. Lorraine was the scene of fighting between the Swedes and the French, and the German Emperor could spare no forces to hold it. The treaty of West-

phalia, which ended the Thirty Years' War, ceded a great part of Lorraine to France, and placed Verdun and Toul well within the French boundary.

This treaty, however, simply made formal cession of lands which France had slowly absorbed before. Thus, the bishoprics of Toul and Verdun had been absorbed as early as 1552.

Q.—What portion remained German?

A.—The part containing the cities of Metz, Strassburg and Muhlhausen. Zabern, which became so notorious through the military arrogance of German officers a few years ago, was in this remaining German territory.

Q.—Did not France finally obtain this also?

A.—Yes. In the seventeenth century, Louis XIV made his famous stroke for the seizure of Holland, and in the ensuing conflict between France and the German Emperor a great part of Alsace and Lorraine, still remaining German, was overrun by the French.

This fighting was terminated in 1678 by the treaty of Nijnwegen, which gave Louis a part of the territory. He desired more, however, and in 1680 formed his noted "chambers of inquiry," and cited German princes to defend their claims to Rhine territory, and especially to Metz and Brisach. In 1680, his General, Louvois, seized Strassburg. This is the war that German history dubs the "Raubkrieg" (robber-war). There were a number of little wars which ended finally in the Peace of Ryswick (1697), confirming the French title to Strassburg.

Q.—Did the Alsace-Lorrainians remain French from that time?

A.—In the century following the Peace of Ryswick the people were in the general position of the "small nationalities," about which we hear so much to-day. Some remained German, others became French in their sympathies. The majority retained German customs and beliefs, but they were so closely in touch with French ideas that when the great French Revolution began, the population, as a whole, leaned strongly toward the side of Republicanism. When the French Republican troops moved into Alsace on their way to fight Austria, they gained many adherents.

About 1789 the French thus obtained, with little difficulty, most of the German parts of Alsace. They also got Mulhausen which, at that time, had become a sort of free commune loosely allied with the Swiss communes.

Q.—Was the French boundary greatly changed then?

A.—The wars of the French Republic, ended by the Peace of Lunéville, added to France other lands on the left bank of the Rhine that had been held by the Holy Roman Empire, and at the beginning of the nineteenth century the dream of the Valois princes was realized and the Western Francia, the duchy of the lords of Paris, had advanced to the utmost limits of the Gaul of Cæsar. The French domain stretched as a solid and unbroken mass from the ocean to the Rhine. After Napoleon's first deposition, in spite of the claim put forward by Prussia, Alsace was left to France, and, after his final deposition, the eastern boundary of France was left by the Powers as it had been at the beginning of 1792.

Q.—How did the Germans finally get Alsace-Lorraine?

A.—It was taken by them as part of the indemnity that they exacted from France after the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. The Germans demanded and got a huge cash indemnity, and, by the Treaty of Frankfurt (May 10, 1871), the provinces were given unreservedly to Germany. On June 9, 1871, the German Empire passed the law stating that "the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine shall be forever united with the German Empire."

Q.—How did the people of Alsace and Lorraine receive the Germans in 1870?

A.—The majority of the people (and those of Alsace particularly) protested passionately. They had become thoroughly French in spirit and feeling, and the ideals of the French Revolution had remained alive in them, despite the succeeding Napoleonic imperialism. The German government set a date (September 30, 1872) for the people to determine where their allegiance was to lie, and a very large number preferred to emigrate to France. The estimate as to this number varies from 45,000 to 125,000. The Encyclopaedia Britannica gives the figure as 45,000.

Many of those who remained refused for a long time to take part in the government.

Q.—Has Germany treated the provinces as conquered territory?

A.—This is a question which cannot be answered justly in a brief statement. The nearest approximation we can make to an absolutely impartial statement is that apparently the purely militaristic part of German government in Alsace and Lorraine is what has caused most of the mischief. This militaristic aspect was largely Prussian, and was fiercely assailed not only by the Alsatians, but also by many factions throughout Germany. As against this, it seems fair to say that the actual political laws for Alsace-Lorraine were reasonably liberal.

Q.—What is the government of Alsace-Lorraine?

A.—Speaking very broadly, the difference between the status of Alsace-Lorraine and the other German States is parallel to the difference in our country between Territories and States. Alsace-Lorraine is held by Germany as a "Reichsland," which means literally "National Province." Thus, while the States of Germany are sovereign States, governing themselves through their own rulerships, somewhat like American States, Alsace-Lorraine is governed by a Statthalter (State-holder or practically governor) appointed directly by the Emperor of Germany, thus again paralleling Federal government of Territories through governors appointed by the President.

Alsace-Lorraine, however, has a Constitution (granted May 31, 1911), which gives the Provinces three representatives in the Federal Council or Bundesrath. The people of the province also elect fifteen members to the Reichstag, thus differing from our form of governing territories, which have no vote in Congress.

Locally the Provinces are governed by an assembly (Landes-Ausschuss), consisting of 58 members, of whom 34 are appointed by an assembly of two houses or chambers, the upper consisting of members appointed by the religious communities (2 Catholic, 2 Protestant, 1 Jew), representatives of universities, large cities, etc., and a group appointed by the Emperor, while the lower house has 60 members elected by the people for 5-year terms.

Q.—Do the people now speak French or German?

A.—About 85 per cent speak German. The rest speak French, or a French patois. Most of the common people habitually use a dialect known as Alsatian, which can be more or less understood by Germans, but is distinctly their own. This condition, by the way, prevails through all of Germany and France, the people of various districts using dialects that their compatriots in other districts can understand with difficulty or not at all. All these people, however, with the exception of the small percentage of illiterates, can speak, read and write their national language.

Q.—Did not the Germans annex Alsace-Lorraine because of the rich mineral lands?

A.—Study of the utterances and writings of German and French statesmen in the period 1865-1875 fails to produce many references to the industrial value of the provinces. The discussions were mostly devoted to the strategical value from the military point of view and the title to possession from the historical and political point of view. It must be remembered that the very loose federation of German States before the Franco-Prussian War had not yet begun to attach preponderating weight to industry and commerce. The iron and coal deposits within Germany itself had been exploited only in a loose way. Germany had not begun to demand vast quantities of iron. Von Moltke and the other military leaders thought of Alsace-Lorraine little, except as a military gateway.

Of course, the situation now is vastly different. The iron fields of Lorraine are immensely valuable to Germany, and France realizes acutely what a treasure it lost when the Provinces were ceded.

Q.—Is the value of Lorraine's iron great enough to offset loss of lives to keep it?

A.—It is estimated by German engineers that out of the 2,800,000,000 tons of iron ore deposit in Germany there are in Lorraine alone 2,100,000,000 tons. In 1913 Germany extracted 28,600,000 metric tons of ore from all her mines. 21,000,000 tons of this total were obtained from Lorraine. The mineral wealth of Lorraine has been for many years the principal source from which German metallurgy has gathered its raw material and German militarism its munitions.

Q.—What was the Zabern affair?

A.—Zabern is a town in Alsace whose population was strongly French in sym-

pathy, and it was garrisoned by Prussian troops, whose relations with the townspeople were dangerously strained almost continually. It happened often that the people, even the children, shouted words of contempt when the soldiers passed.

Some months before the great war a Prussian officer, Lieutenant von Forstner, was passing in review cases of discipline, when a soldier was brought before him who had stabbed an Alsatian, and who had been sentenced to two months' imprisonment. The lieutenant's judgment was: "Two months on account of an Alsatian blackguard? I would have given you ten marks for your trouble."

The town, hearing the story, showed its contempt for the Prussians by smashing the windows of von Forstner's house, and hooting German officers and soldiers when they appeared on the street. Zabern was put under martial law, and it is charged that the Prussians threatened to fire upon the citizens. When the situation was at its worst, a cobbler of Zabern had a wordy conflict with Forstner. He spat in the officer's face and was promptly attacked with a sword.

The man was a cripple, and this fact, with the charge that he had been sabred, aroused wild indignation. The Reichstag passed a strong vote of censure and the Chancellor felt constrained to declare that "no progress could be made in Alsace-Lorraine unless they abandoned the fruitless attempt to turn the South Germans of the Reichsland into North German Prussians."

The garrison was transferred. The lieutenant declared that he had used only the flat of his sword, but a very bad impression was created by the fact that though the court-martial sentenced him to detention in a fortress for a short period, he was promoted by his military superiors.

Q.—How would the people of Alsace-Lorraine vote in a plebiscite?

A.—The Encyclopaedia Britannica (1910, eleventh edition, Cambridge, England) leans to the opinion that they would wish to remain German. The "War Dictionary," published by the Committee on Public Information, Washington, says that Germany "throughout has been unable to reconcile a large portion of the inhabitants .or to prevent them from showing their attachment to France on every occasion. Germanizing the inhabitants has been only partially successful, despite the bringing in of German settlers, and the adoption of such restrictive measures as that of limiting instruction in the French language in the public schools to one hour a week."

Professor Nippold, of the University of Berlin, said that "when one looks back into the history of Europe for the last forty years, it seems inconceivable that any one can be unwilling to admit that the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine was a political mistake."

Sir Harry H. Johnston, the well-known British colonial official, wrote in the English Nineteenth Century Magazine: "If a plebiscite were called, absolutely uncontrolled by government officials, it would probably be found that there was an overwhelming majority of votes in Alsace-Lorraine for inclusion within the German Empire."

Q.—What is the French view of it?

A.—Many Frenchmen have declared that a plebiscite would result in a majority for remaining German. The view of those who want to make them French again is that the people are French at heart, and that the only way to do justice is to restore the Provinces to France.

Q.—Do Alsace and Lorraine differ from each other much?

A.—They are quite distinct in dialect. "Elsassisch" is wholly unlike "Lothringish." They differ largely, too, in commercial character, Alsace being largely agricultural, while Lorraine is getting to be more and more industrial.

Alsace itself is divided into upper Alsace and lower Alsace, and these two districts differ somewhat from each other.

Q.—Apart from French leanings, what rule do the Alsace-Lorrainians want?

A.—The people want to free themselves from the status of being mere inhabitants of a Reichsland. They want to become a rightful political entity. Apparently, the chief political thought of the Provinces (viewing simply the relations to the German Empire) is not toward erection of Alsace-Lorraine into a separate German State.

The people of Lorraine appear to favor inclusion in the Bavarian Rhine province adjacent to them; and the Alsatians appear to lean toward incorporation with Baden. Prussian desire for hegemony in the empire has, without doubt, had much to do with opposition to this possible solution of a vexed question.

Q.—Did Germany pay for the railways in Alsace-Lorraine?

A.—Alsace was one of the first districts in France to have a railway, a line from Mulhausen to Thann having been started in 1837. The Est Company operated the lines in the annexed provinces, and the French Government was obliged, before the ratification of the peace treaty, to determine the *concessions* of the Est Company so far as Alsace and Lorraine were concerned. It had, that is to say, to purchase the lines from the company many years before the *concessions* would normally have expired. The German Government then became vested not only with the lines themselves, but with all the legal rights taken over by the French Government on determining the *concessions*. All the plant was included in the transaction, but the rolling stock was expressly exempted, and the Germans handed back some hundred locomotives and 35,000 vehicles. The Est then received an indemnity from the German authorities, which was actually paid over to the shareholders by the French Government, as it was arranged that the sum in question—352,000,000 francs—should be deducted from the war indemnity of 5,000,000,000 francs ($95,000,000), which France was obliged to hand over to Prussia at the end of the campaign.

Q.—Which side declared war in the Franco-Prussian war?

A.—France declared war. The Representatives in the Chamber voted in favor of fighting the Prussians by 246 votes to 10.

Q.—How long did the Franco-Prussian war last?

A.—France declared war on July 15, 1870, and peace was signed at Frankfort on May 10, 1871. Peace negotiations were opened by the French on January 24, 1871, and, after the capitulation of Paris, on January 28, there was an armistice of twenty-one days. On February 26 the German terms, later incorporated in the Treaty of Frankfort, were accepted by the French.

THE PLACE IN THE SUN

Q.—What has been England's colonial expansion in the last twenty-five years?

A.—The only colonies of note won by the sword by Great Britain during the last twenty-five years are the Transvaal (110,400 square miles) and the Orange Free State (50,400 square miles). All the rest have been won by a policy of peaceful penetration, or by agreement with the other Great Powers. The Malay States, for instance, only came directly under British control in 1896, but ever since 1874 British residents were "advising" the native rulers. They steadily increased influence and area until the British Empire was enlarged in that part of the world by some 30,000 square miles. The same process was followed in Beluchistan after the Afghan wars had enabled the British to get a footing there. In 1887 British Beluchistan came into formal existence. Further provinces have been added since and this colony now comprises 132,000 square miles.

Q.—Does Great Britain own Chinese territory?

A.—Sikkim in the Himalayas, 2,818 square miles, was acquired by treaty with China in 1890. Wei-Hai-Wei was leased by Great Britain from China as an answer to the leasing of Port Arthur by Russia. It is generally understood that this lease will not be terminated so long as Japan remains at Port Arthur, where by *force majeure,* she took over the lease from the Russians in 1895.

Q.—What does Great Britain own in Africa?

A.—Great Britain, by agreement with the other Powers, confirmed her occupation of large areas in East Africa, and in 1908 the entire protectorate became a Crown Colony, some 200,000 square miles in area. It includes those portions of the hinterland of Zanzibar for which Lord Salisbury exchanged Heligoland. North of the East Africa Protectorate is the Uganda Protectorate, also British, officially acquired in 1894, some 118,000 square miles in extent. The Somaliland Protectorate, 68,000 square miles, the Nyassaland Protectorate, 40,000 square miles, and Bechuanaland Protectorate, 275,000 square miles, Rhodesia, 435,000 square miles were all acquired peacefully within the last twenty-five years. Other odd possessions in Africa were obtained by arrangement with the other Powers, when from time to time they divided up Africa.

Q.—How did Great Britain get the Sudan?

A.—The Sudan was reconquered by the British—nominally on behalf of Turkey—in 1896. It comprised 950,000 square miles.

Q.—How did she get Egypt?

A.—Egypt, long virtually under British control, though nominally under the Sultan of Turkey, became actually British after the agreement with France, which gave the latter a free hand in Tunis, and made her the dominant power in Morocco. Since the war began the suzerainty of Turkey has been abolished. The area of Egypt is about 400,000 square miles.

Q.—How did Great Britain get so many coaling stations?

A.—The majority of the important coaling stations and islands owned by Great Britain all over the world were acquired by conquest, either from the French or from their Allies during the Napoleonic wars. Others were taken still earlier from the Spaniards.

Q.—How were the Dominions won?

A.—India was won by the sword and by peaceful penetration, Australia and New Zealand by settlement, Canada by conquest, cession and settlement, Newfoundland by settlement and agreement with France.

Q.—How did the Germans acquire New Guinea?

A.—By annexation, much as the British acquired what is known as Papua. The island was probably discovered by two Portuguese navigators, in 1511. The Spaniards, however, during the next two decades appear to have visited it often.

In 1545, De Retez, a Spanish explorer, cruising round the island, continued his voyage to the Australian Continent, thinking it was still part of the same island,

and, landing in North Queensland, gave it the name of New Guinea. He formally took possession of what is now Dutch New Guinea in the name of the King of Spain. Dutch voyagers, including Tasman, in 1643, were the next on the scene, and finally the British arrived, Dampier being the first Englishman to land there, in 1700. Captain Cook visited the island in 1770.

The Dutch, who had established trading stations on the coast, formally annexed the western half of the island in 1848.

Q.—Did not Australia take a hand?

A.—The Queensland Government, realizing the desirability of possessing the place for strategical reasons, sent Mr. Chester, Police Magistrate at Thursday Island, to New Guinea in 1883, and he formally annexed all that the Dutch had not taken.

Q.—Did England ratify this?

A.—The Home Government refused to ratify, and as a result one-fourth of the island was lost to the British Crown. The two great missionaries who were at that time the most notable people in the island, Dr. Lawes and Dr. Chalmers, both approved the action of Lord Derby. The latter wrote, "Derby was right in leaving room for Germany. The Colonies are angry from ignorance."

In the following year, however, the Government took action and established a protectorate over what is now called Papua. The flag was hoisted by Lieutenant (now Admiral) Gaunt on November 6, 1884.

The German flag was raised in Kaiser Wilhelm's-Hafen ten days later. The boundary between British and German New Guinea was agreed upon in the succeeding year.

Q.—Was the German Colony only on the island of New Guinea?

A.—No. It included as well several large islands, Neu-Pommern, on which is situated the capital, Herbertshohe, Neu-Mecklenburg, Neu-Hannover, the Admiralty Islands, and the Solomon Islands (2), and some 200 little islands scattered about in the neighborhood of the big ones. The area of Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, which is on New Guinea proper, is about 70,000 square miles. It is interesting to recall, by the way, that Neu-Pommern was formerly called New Britain, and Neu-Mecklenburg used to be known as New Ireland.

Q.—Were the other German possessions in the Pacific acquired by annexation?

A.—No. Most of them were acquired by purchase or by treaty. Germany bought the Caroline, Pellew, and Marianne Islands, with the exception of the largest, Guam, which was ceded to the United States by Spain after the Spanish-American war.

Q.—How does it happen that Great Britain has possession of Cyprus?

A.—At the end of the Russo-Turkish war Great Britain engaged to join the Sultan of Turkey in defending his Asiatic possessions against Russia, and the Sultan, in order to enable England to make necessary provision for fulfilling this engagement, consented to assign the island of Cyprus, to be occupied and administered by England. The British occupation began in June, 1878. The treaty between the Queen and the Sultan set forth that "if Batoum, Ardahan, Kars or any of them shall be returned by Russia, and if any attempt shall be made at any future time by Russia to take possession of any further territories of the Sultan in Asia, as fixed by the definitive Treaty of Peace (signed between Russia and Turkey on February 8, 1879), England engages to join the Sultan in defending them by force of arms. . . . And, in order to enable England to make necessary provision for executing her engagement, the Sultan further consents to assign the Island of Cyprus, to be occupied and administered by England." This is one of the few treaties which states definitely that one nation will fight another under certain circumstances. An inner fact is that England considers the possession of Cyprus necessary for the security of the Suez Canal. Every year Great Britain paid an annual tribute of $450,000 to Turkey for Cyprus, but this money never went to Turkey at all. It was used to pay the interest on money advanced to Turkey. During the great war Great Britain finally annexed the island. Apart from the fact that she no longer pays tribute, matters will be the same as they have been for the last 38 years.

Q.—What did we pay for the Danish West Indies?

A.—The United States obtained these islands by the payment of $25,000,000. After considerable discussion, the group was renamed the Virgin Islands.

Q.—Had Denmark always owned the Virgin Islands?

A.—They have had many owners since Columbus first discovered them. The island of St. Croix has been in succession Spanish, English, Dutch, Spanish, French, Maltese, French and Danish. In most cases it was as the spoil of conquest, but in 1753 King Christian VI of Denmark purchased it for $150,000. During the Napoleonic Wars, Great Britain possessed herself of the islands, but they were returned to Denmark after Waterloo. Few islands have had a more romantic history. Here Drake and Frobisher, Grenville and De Grasse fought in the early days. Later the buccaneers and pirates of the Spanish Main made them their headquarters. Blackbeard's Tower, which still overlooks the great harbor of St. Thomas, is a memento of one of the fiercest of these old pirates, one Edward Teach, better known as Blackbeard.

Q.—Had the United States tried to purchase the islands before?

A.—In 1867, Denmark, finding the islands a heavy drain on her exchequer, agreed to the proposal of the United States, which offered to purchase the three islands for $7,500,000. The American Senate refused to ratify the treaty. In 1902 negotiations were opened again, and another treaty was signed, under which the United States was to buy the islands for $5,000,000. On this occasion, however, the Danish Parliament refused to ratify. The value of the islands at present is purely strategic, although at one time St. Thomas, the capital, was the distributing center for the Antilles and Central America.

Q.—Have the Virgin Islands a large population?

A.—No. Altogether not more than 30,000. The inhabitants are practically all negroes, and are engaged on the sugar plantations. The islands had not prospered recently under Danish rule, and the population has decreased owing to poor sanitary conditions. The infant mortality is more than 50 per cent.

Q.—What government has British South Africa?

A.—A Colonial government similar to the Canadian. It is known as the Union of South Africa, and the premier is General Botha, a Boer.

Q.—Was there a convention that in war all Africa should be regarded neutral territory inviolable from attack?

A.—Not all Africa. At the Berlin Convention of 1885, the Powers decided that free trade in time of peace and neutrality in time of war should prevail throughout the region watered by the Congo and its tributaries, including Lake Tanganyika, an area of a million and a half square miles.

Q.—How does it happen, then, that there has been fighting?

A.—On August 7, 1911, the Belgian Government asked France and Great Britain to declare their Congo colonies neutral in accordance with the convention. France was, so it is said, willing, but Great Britain refused on the ground that it was impracticable, and that hostilities already had begun in Africa.

Q.—Was the United States a signatory of this convention?

A.—The American Government took part in the convention, and the United States was the first Power to recognize the flag of the Orange Free State, Germany being the second. The German Government in 1914 formally asked the United States as one of the signatories of the convention to arrange an agreement among the belligerents to exclude the Congo Basin from the war.

Q.—What did the United States do?

A.—It decided not to undertake the negotiations on the ground that the Senate never had ratified the Berlin Convention.

Q.—Ought the United States not to have done something?

A.—Not necessarily. Legally she was not a party to the convention. The United States took a leading part in the Berlin 1885 Convention, but the Senate, which has control, with the President, over foreign affairs, refused to ratify it.

Q.—Is Persia an independent state?

A.—Nominally. Until 1906 the Shah was the absolute ruler, and was generally regarded as the vice-regent of the Prophet. In that year, however, a sort of a Parliament was formed, and in the

year following, a regular constitution was proclaimed. In 1909 the nationalists rose in revolt. The Shah fled, and abdicated. The finances were in chaos, and Russia and England intervened in the local government. Before this, the differences between the two great Powers had kept Persia independent. With their *rapprochement*, the need for a buffer state disappeared. The Anglo-Russian Convention of 1907 virtually divided the country between Britain and Russia. The Shah still is nominal ruler, and the people are supposed to govern themselves through their parliament. The Russian sphere of influence, as laid out in 1907, was the northern half of Persia, and the British the southern half.

Q.—What are the British interests in Persia?

A.—The greatest direct and specific interest is oil.

During the war the British Government completed arrangements for a huge concession, which secured to the Admiralty immense oil fields in Persia. Naval experts had insisted upon the necessity of controlling a large and steady supply of oil.

Q.—After the downfall of the Czar, did Russia retain domination in Persia?

A.—Trotzky, the Russian foreign minister under the Bolsheviki government, gave the Persian minister in Petrograd a statement in January, 1918, declaring:

"The Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 was directed against the liberty and independence of the Persian people, and is null and void for all time. Moreover, the Government denounces all agreements preceding and following the said agreement which may restrict the rights of the Persian people to a free and independent existence."

Q.—What is the area of Egypt?

A.—About 400,000 square miles, but of this only about 12,000 square miles are cultivated and settled.

Q.—How many people live there?

A.—According to the census of 1907 there were 11,200,000. Among these were 150,000 foreigners, viz., 63,000 Greeks, 35,000 Italians, 21,000 British and 15,000 French. Of the total population 10,400,000 are Moslems, 706,500 Copts (Christians), and 39,000 Jews.

Q.—What race are the Maltese—European or Asiatic?

A.—They are a Mediterranean race, that is, they are similar in many respects to the Italians, Sicilians, Greeks and Levantine peoples. Malta was originally colonized by the Phœnicians, who were the great navigators of their time, and cruised through the entire length of the Mediterranean and along the seaboard of the eastern Atlantic to Great Britain. They planted colonies as they went. Carthaginians, Romans, Arabs, Normans, Turks, French, Italians and British took possession of the island at different times, as enemies or as deliverers. The people do not speak Italian, but Phœnician-Maltese, which is altogether different. On the whole they are a handsome, well-formed race, thrifty and industrious, strong and very prolific. They are very strict Roman Catholics. They have altogether escaped the negroid contamination noticeable in some of the European lands opposite Africa.

Q.—Are there many Maltese?

A.—Malta had 219,311 at the last census. The density of the population is 1,858 to the square mile. In Belgium the density is 665, and in the United Kingdom 378 a square mile. There has been considerable difficulty experienced by the Colonial Office in connection with the island, owing to the rapid increase of the population, and the increasing lack of employment, due to the fact that, for some years before the war, Britain maintained a very small squadron in the Mediteranean, and Malta was therefore much less used than formerly for naval purposes.

Q.—Do the natives of South Africa pay more in direct taxation for land than do the Europeans?

A.—Apparently that is so. The natives contributed in 1916 $4,250,000 in direct taxes; the Europeans $1,450,000. The Europeans own 110 millions "morgens" of land, the natives only 16 millions. The new taxes have been severely criticized in the Union Parliament.

Q.—Has there been fighting in Tripoli?

A.—There was in 1915, and of so serious a nature that the Italians appear to have evacuated the country they had conquered at so great a cost, and retired to the seaboard towns where they were safe from Arab attack. Reports in August, 1917, were that there had been heavy

fighting in Tripoli, and that the Italians completely defeated their adversaries, who were led by Turks and Germans.

Q.—What was the Jameson Raid?

A.—The Jameson raid was led by Dr. (afterward Sir Starr) Jameson, in 1895-6, He was Administrator of Rhodesia at the time, and gathered a body of troops at Mafeking on the Transvaal border, his presence there being connected with a conspiracy which was being hatched at Johannesburg to overthrow President Kruger. The conspirators, however, fell out among themselves over the question whether the State they proposed to set up was to be an independent one, or to be under the British flag.

Owing to this, and to the suspicions of the Dutch, the revolution did not culminate. Dr. Jameson, hoping to save the situation, decided to ride in to Johannesburg, with chosen companions, trusting that the conspirators, heartened by their arrival, would strike the blow they had contemplated. The Boers, however, received word of his coming, telegraphed to London, and the British Government immediately disowned Dr. Jameson.

A commando of some thousand men was hastily raised, and under the leadership of General Cronje, surprised and utterly defeated the raiders at Doornkop, some twelve miles from Johannesburg, on January 2, 1896. A few raiders were killed and the rest were taken prisoner.

Q.—Were the Jameson raiders punished?

A.—President Kruger liberated the men, and handed the leaders over to Great Britain for punishment. He, however, arrested the revolutionary committee, and Mr. Phillips (later Sir Lionel Phillips), Mr. Farrar (later Sir George Farrar), Colonel Frank Rhodes (brother of Cecil Rhodes), and John Hays Hammond (the American mining engineer), were condemned to death. After some months' imprisonment, however, they were let off with a fine of £25,000 ($125,000) each. All the others of the committee were condemned to two years' imprisonment, and a fine of £2,000 each, but were liberated after one month's imprisonment, the fines all being paid.

Dr. Jameson was tried in London and was sent to prison for some months.

Q.—How many soldiers had the British in the South African war?

A.—230,000 in all; 5,774 were killed, 22,829 were wounded. The Boer losses in killed were estimated at 4,000. At the disastrous battle of the Tugela, British losses were 1,100, while at Loos, Belgium, they were 60,000, but Loos was a victory, and the Tugela a defeat.

Q.—Who and what is the Rajah of Sarawak?

A.—The first Rajah of Sarawak was Sir Charles Brooke, who obtained the territory from the Sultan of Brunei in 1842 in recompense for aiding to save his throne. His nephew succeeded in 1868, and the present ruler, known formerly as Rajah Mundi, is his son. He married a daughter of Viscount Esher of England.

Q.—How was Africa parcelled out among the European nations before the war?

A.—The great partition was completed in 1885 at Berlin, when the Congo Free State came into existence. Since then France got Morocco, Italy Tripoli; Great Britain has now completely acquired Egypt, and all the German possessions in West Africa have been taken by the Allies. In 1913 Africa was cut up as follows:—

	Square Miles.
French	4,100,000
British	2,100,000
Egypt and Sudan	1,600,000
Total British	3,700,000
German	900,000
Belgian	900,000
Portuguese	800,000
Italian	600,000
Spanish	80,000
Abyssinia	350,000
Liberia	40,000

Q.—When did the Mediterranean nations obtain Northern Africa?

A.—When Turkish power over the Red Sea and Mediterranean Africa weakened. In 1830 France took Algeria. Then France (with England) established a dual control over Egypt. In 1881 France annexed Tunis. In 1882 England bombarded Alexandria to put down the revolt of Arabi Pasha, and then took control. In 1884 Italy sent an expedition to occupy Dogali and Massawa, adjoining Abyssinia. The force was overwhelmed by Menelik of Abyssinia. A second expedition was sent with more success, and after five years of desultory fighting, a peace was declared in 1889. The contin-

ual change of cabinets kept the entire East African situation in a turmoil for ten years more before the Italian hold in the Red Sea country, known as Eritrea, was secure.

Q.—What possessions had Germany in the Pacific?

A.—She had German New Guinea, which consists of Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, 70,000 square miles, situated on the island of New Guinea, immediately north of Papua; the Bismarck Archipelago, including Neu-Pommern (the headquarters of the Governor), the Caroline Islands, the Pelew Islands, and the Marianne Islands, the Solomon Islands, the Marshall Islands. Some were acquired in 1885, others were purchased from Spain in 1899. The native population is some 360,000; there were 1,240 whites, of whom 790 were German.

Q.—How did Germany get possession in the Samoan group?

A.—She had two Samoan islands (Savaii and Upolo) ceded to her by the so-called tri-partite agreement by which the United States, Great Britain and Germany apportioned the Samoan group among themselves. This arrangement was initiated in Cleveland's first term, concluded in Harrison's term, and revised by arbitration in McKinley's term.

It has been said that Great Britain's acquiescence to Germany's participation was obtained as compensation for the Kaiser's refusal to join France and Russia in an anti-British league during the Boer war.

Q.—How did Germany get into China?

A.—Kiau-Chau in China, was seized by the Germans in 1897 in retaliation for the murder of some German missionaries, but was leased from China for 99 years in 1899, about the time that Britain leased Wei-hai-wei on the same peninsula. Its area is about 200 square miles. 33,000 Chinese lived there, and 1,848 Germans, including the garrison of marines. It has a fine harbor.

Q.—What other possessions had Germany?

A.—Togo, in Upper Guinea, Africa, between the British Gold Coast on the west and the French Dahomey on the east. It is 33,700 square miles, and 300 Germans lived there. The Cameroons, between British Nigeria and French Congo, are 191,130 square miles; 1,130 Germans lived there. German Southwest Africa lies between Portuguese West Africa and Cape Colony. Area, 322,450 square miles; 12,135 Germans lived there. German East Africa, 384,180 square miles, lies between British East Africa and Portuguese East Africa; has a population of 7,500,000 native and had 3,580 Germans. The German colonial possessions together had a total area of 1,000,000 square miles, and a population of 14,000,000. Of the whites, some 25,000 in all, 20,750 were Germans. This does not include the military forces, which numbered about 4,500 Germans and 3,825 natives.

Q.—Were the German colonies a good investment?

A.—They cost Germany in administration and special grants about $15,000,000 annually. Many Germans regard German colonial expansion in these tropical lands as mere waste of money. It was actually costing about $750 each year for every German living in the colonies.

Q.—What part of Canada is French? Are they in sympathy with the war?

A.—2,000,000 out of 7,200,000 are French. It would seem that some are plainly opposed to the war, and that as a body the French Canadians are indifferent at least. Up to the time the Canadian draft law was passed, out of nearly 400,000 Canadian enlistments, only about 20,000 were French Canadians; and Sir Wilfred Laurier, a French Canadian, and formerly the Premier of the Dominion, led the opposition party and made his political issue opposition to the conscription bill.

Q.—Has Italy annexed the Turkish islands which she occupied in her war with Turkey in 1911-12?

A.—Yes. As soon as she declared war against Turkey, in June, 1915, she formally annexed them. This appears to have been her only act of aggression against the Turks. According to the term of the Treaty of Ouchy, 1912, Italy undertook to evacuate these islands and to pay Turkey no less than $400,000 annually as compensation for the loss of revenue from Tripoli. As it turns out, it was a good thing she did find it impossible to carry out her treaty obligations before the present war broke out. Under

Italian rule these islands will presumably be far more prosperous than under Turkish, but the Greeks, of course, are very resentful of Italy's possessing herself of what they regard as their natural heritage.

Q.—What does "the Kamerun" mean?

A.—The "Kamerun" is the German name for "Cameroon"—a German protectorate in West Africa, bounded west by the Atlantic, northwest by British Nigeria, north by Lake Chad, east and south by French Congo and the Spanish Muni River settlement. The region was acquired through a treaty, negotiated by Gustav Nachtigal, on July 15, 1884. Germany gradually extended its influence to the interior. In 1905 and 1906, collisions took place between the French and German troops. An accurate survey resulted in a new boundary convention in 1908, whereby natural features of the land were adopted as boundary lines. The name "Cameroon" means "crab river," given to an estuary where many crustacea were found. The name was later given to the neighboring mountains and extended in its German form to the entire region.

HOW WE GOT INTO IT

Q.—Were the rights of any neutrals respected by the belligerents?

A.—They were not. Both sides professed scrupulous regard for the rights of nations not in the war, but each side at once placed its own belligerent interests before everything else.

Q.—What was the first trespass against neutral rights?

A.—The practical abrogation of the Declaration of London, which had provided very excellent safeguards for neutral commercial rights on the sea.

Q.—Was the "Declaration" an established part of international law?

A.—It had not been ratified by some of the nations, but it had been signed by almost all, and, before the war began, it had been considered as the established code by which belligerents and neutrals were to be guided.

Q.—What was the first result of the abrogation?

A.—A sweeping definition of the meaning of "contraband," which was enlarged bit by bit till it included practically every article of important sea-commerce.

Q.—How could belligerents declare neutral shipments contraband?

A.—They could not in international law. Neutral nations had the absolute unquestioned right to import anything from artillery to wheat for their own use.

Q.—Why, then, did new definitions affect neutrals?

A.—Because the sweeping definition of "contraband" was followed by an equally sweeping claim that all goods that were contraband when destined directly for an enemy, were equally contraband when destined for a neutral port under circumstances that created the suspicion that they were for ultimate enemy use.

Q.—Was this the only infraction of neutral rights?

A.—No. Almost simultaneously the belligerents claimed the right to visit, search and seize all ships, under any flag, in any part of the seas around Europe.

Q.—Is that not a legal use of rights of blockade?

A.—No. Blockade had been clearly defined, and the definition clearly established both by international agreements and by international observance. Legal blockade was sharply limited to actual investment by naval forces of specific coasts and ports.

Q.—Did the neutrals object?

A.—They did. But, with the exception of the United States, they were powerless to do more than object, and they felt constrained to do their objecting most diplomatically and cautiously.

Q.—Did the United States object?

A.—The United States objected most strongly, declaring certain methods of the belligerents in "imposing a contraband nature on cargoes bound for neutral ports are without justification"; and in regard to blockade, that it was "illegal and indefensible." (American Note to Great Britain, October 21, 1915.)

Q.—Was the remonstrance successful?

A.—No. The belligerents were courteous but uncompromising. Instead of relaxing their hold, they increased it till they controlled the sea-borne commerce everywhere, even in oceans and ports far from the scene of war.

Q.—Did it really injure the United States?

A.—It did from the viewpoint of national dignity and rights, but not from the commercial and financial viewpoint. While individuals suffered severely, the national commerce, as a whole, grew enormously in value, because of the vast purchases by the belligerents who controlled the sea. Individuals, of course, whose business had depended largely on imports to, or exports from, blockaded

countries, suffered heavily. Some were ruined. It is estimated that the claims for damage by individuals total all of half a billion.

Q.—How did the weak neutrals fare?

A.—Badly. Their entire ocean trade, both incoming and outgoing, became subject to the good pleasure of the belligerents.

Q.—Did the small neutrals not profit by commerce with the blockaded powers?

A.—They did; and this fact greatly involved the whole subject. Legally, they had the full right to buy anything they chose in foreign countries and to sell it again to whom they chose, belligerent or not.

Q.—But the legal right was not recognized?

A.—Emphatically not, in practice, though it was not absolutely and wholly denied officially. To deny the whole right bluntly and squarely would have laid the basis for possible huge claims of damages after the war, not to mention the possible immediate effect on the national pride of the small nations.

Q.—Just how did the belligerents enforce control of neutral trade?

A.—By a very shrewd method, under which associations of merchants in the small neutral countries were formed, such as the often-named Overseas Trust of Holland. These associations, acting as wholly private individuals or corporations, gave satisfactory guarantees that imports assigned to them would not pass on to the enemy.

Q.—Could nobody else buy and sell as he pleased?

A.—Technically and ostensibly, yes. Actually, no. The belligerents saw to it that no goods should enter the neutral countries adjoining their enemies, except goods for the associations whom they could trust.

Q.—Was that not an infraction of sovereignty?

A.—It was in actuality, but in the form in which it was done, the governments of the small neutral nations were enabled to ignore the actual matter as being a purely private concern of their citizens, while diplomatically and officially they continued to maintain their assertion of full neutral rights and their refusal to permit any abrogation of them.

Q.—Did all the little neutrals permit it?

A.—Holland, Denmark and Norway did. Sweden refused, and demanded full rights without compromise, but she had to yield bit by bit.

Q.—Was American neutrality the kind known as "benevolent neutrality?"

A.—Following the official proclamation of the nation's neutrality in formal diplomatic manner (August 4, 1914), President Wilson issued an appeal to the American people (August 19, 1914), in which he said that "the United States must be neutral in fact as well as in name."

Q.—How did this differ from benevolent neutrality?

A.—The essence of "benevolent" neutrality is that it is neutrality in name only.

Q.—What is the test of strict neutrality?

A.—A nation neutral in fact as well as in name rigidly applies all rulings and laws equally to both belligerents. It gives them exactly the same rights and denies them exactly the same privileges. It refuses officially to encourage or discourage one as against the other. It refrains officially from suggesting that the one is justified or guilty as against the other.

Q.—What is the course of a nation observing benevolent neutrality?

A.—It stretches points in favor of the favored party and strains interpretations against the non-favored party. It gives aid and comfort to the favored party to the utmost degree possible without laying itself open to proof that it has committed violations of the technical laws of neutrality.

Q.—Is benevolent neutrality recognized as legal?

A.—Only by the beneficiaries. The non-favored nation never recognizes the

right to exercise "benevolent" neutrality, and always retaliates if it dares do so.

Q.—Were not Americans in favor of the Allies? Was this a violation of neutrality?

A.—All that is expected of a nation is that it shall be neutral so far as its government and its execution of laws are concerned. The attitude of the people may cause a highly critical situation, yet a belligerent government cannot remonstrate, so long as the government of the neutral nation does not officially encourage public sentiment.

Q.—What was the first infraction of American neutrality?

A.—Attempts to supply belligerent warships were the first grave disturbances of American neutrality.

Q.—Were the attempts confined to Germany?

A.—No. Both sides at first took advantage, where they could, of getting supplies in American ports.

Q.—Did the United States object impartially?

A.—Yes. But the German attempts, in actual fact, were serious and demanded serious action, while the British attempts were unimportant. The British warships had ample facilities in Canadian and other ports under Allied control. Therefore, such little supplying as was done through American ports was slight and really negligible. The German warships, on the other hand, having no German or other friendly ports available, endeavored to get full cruising supplies (coal, food, etc.), and this meant that American ports would be made, in fact, naval bases for them.

Q.—Did the attempts to supply German warships bring American States into the war?

A.—No, except in so far as they may have helped to irritate the public mind. Specifically, they were few, and they were completely stopped with comparative ease.

Q.—What was the specific grievance that led us into war?

A.—The use in a new way of a new instrument of sea-war, the submarine.

Q.—Was it because the submarines destroyed our ships?

A.—No. It was because in sinking ships (comparatively few of which were ours), the German submarines destroyed American lives.

Q.—Would we have warred ultimately on Germany for sinking our ships, even if no lives had been destroyed?

A.—Possibly, but probably not. In the first place, we had very few merchant ships under the American flag. In the second place, sinkings that entailed merely a loss of property might have fallen under practically the same category of violated sea-laws, and the United States had charged both sides with such violations.

Q.—Did Germany claim justification for war-zone decrees?

A.—Germany claimed that her war-zone decrees were justified under the customs of war that permitted retaliatory measures against an enemy who practised violations on his part.

Q.—Had there been a previous decree?

A.—The first war-zone decree was issued by Great Britain on November 3, 1914. It declared "the whole of the North Sea a military area."

Q.—But had not the Germans planted mines in the North Sea?

A.—Both Germany and Great Britain had charged each other with having done this.

Q.—When did the Germans issue the first war-zone decree?

A.—On February 4, 1915. The German decree declared "the waters surrounding Great Britain and Ireland, including the whole British Channel" to be within the seat of war.

Q.—Did this decree open submarine campaign against neutral shipping?

A.—No. This war-zone decree was against "enemy ships." In a German communication to the United States (February 16, 1915), the German Government

said specifically: "The German Government announced merely the destruction of enemy merchant vessels found within the area of maritime war, and not the destruction of all merchant vessels."

Q.—Did the United States acquiesce?

A.—No. The United States unqualifiedly protested against both British and German war-zone decrees and has never changed that attitude. The American note to Germany said that "the Government of the United States would be constrained to hold the Imperial German Government to a strict accountability."

Q.—Did this decree bring us into the war?

A.—No. It created a very difficult situation, but it did not lead to war, even though it was followed by the torpedoing of the *Lusitania* (May 7, 1915); the sinking of the *Arabic* (August 19); and, finally, the sinking of the *Sussex* (March 24, 1916), with the loss of American lives in each case.

Q.—Did America adopt a hostile attitude toward Germany after the first submarine war-zone decree?

A.—The United States insisted firmly and sternly on its rights, but it was not hostile. It went so far as to propose a reasonable compromise between the belligerents.

Q.—What was the compromise?

A.—It was a suggestion, made in a note to both Great Britain and France (February 20, 1915), that both sides should agree to abstain from sowing floating mines; that submarines be used only for visit and search; that neither side permit its merchant vessels to carry neutral flags for disguise.

Q.—Was that the whole scope of suggested compromise?

A.—No. President Wilson's note suggested that Germany agree that all importations of foodstuffs from the United States (and other neutral countries wishing to enter into the agreement) be consigned to agencies designated by the American government, which agencies should control the distribution so as to guarantee that none of it should reach any except non-combatants.

Q.—Did the note ask England to let such foodstuffs pass?

A.—Yes. The President suggested that foodstuffs consigned to such American agencies in Germany be permitted to pass without detention or interference.

Q.—Did the suggestion lead to anything?

A.—No. Neither this nor other diplomatic correspondence that followed produced any material changes in the situation.

Q.—Did the German Embassy issue a warning to passengers on the "Lusitania"?

A.—The following advertisement appeared in the New York *World* and the New York *Times* May 1, 1915, seven days before the sinking of the *Lusitania*: "Travelers intending to embark on the Atlantic voyage are reminded that a state of war exists between Germany and her Allies and Great Britain and her Allies; that the zone of war includes the waters adjacent to the British Isles; that, in accordance with formal notice given by the Imperial German Government, vessels flying the flag of Great Britain, or of any of her Allies, are liable to destruction in those waters, and that travelers sailing in the war zone on ships of Great Britain or her Allies do so at their own risk. Imperial German Embassy, Washington, D. C., April 22, 1915."

Q.—Did Germany offer indemnity for Americans lost on the "Lusitania"?

A.—Yes. While negotiations over the *Lusitania* case were still pending she stated her willingness to pay indemnity for the deaths of Americans—whose deaths Germany "greatly regretted," but she refused to disavow the act of the submarine commander in sinking the *Lusitania*, or to admit that such act was illegal.

Q.—Was it ever proved that a German submarine sank the "Sussex"?

A.—Yes. The evidence collected by American naval officers and the British Admiralty was overwhelming, and Germany, which had claimed at first that the only German submarine in the vicinity had sunk a British warship, finally admitted that the ship sunk must have been the *Sussex*.

Q.—When did the Germans issue the decree that brought us into the war?

A.—On January 31, 1917, Germany announced that from February 1, 1917, unrestricted submarine warfare would begin against all merchant ships, enemy and neutral, in specified war zones and that they would be sunk without warning.

Q.—Before this, had we not tried to make peace?

A.—Yes. On December 18, 1916, President Wilson had sent to all the belligerents an identical note, in which he suggested an expression of their respective views on terms under which the war might be ended.

Q.—Had this note been brought out by any specific developments?

A.—Yes. On December 12, 1916, Germany had made formal proposal to enter "forthwith into peace negotiations."

Q.—Did the President offer mediation?

A.—He was careful to say clearly: "The President is not proposing peace; he is not even offering mediation."

Q.—Who was Austrian ambassador at the outbreak of war?

A.—There was none. Some time before Dr. Dumba, the former Austrian ambassador, had been discovered in plots to corrupt the Austrian and Slav workers in American ammunition plants, and had his passports handed to him as *"persona non grata"* to the American Government.

Q.—Were Capt. Von Papen and the rest representatives of the German Government?

A.—Capts. Von Papen and Boy-Ed were, respectively, the German military attache and the German naval attache to the German Embassy. Dr. Dernberg was technically the president of the German Red Cross Association, but, in reality, was a German propaganda agent.

Q.—Had Germany plotted to embroil Mexico with the United States?

A.—Yes. The German Foreign Secretary, Count von Zimmerman, endeavored to enlist the Carranza government in case the United States went to war with Germany, promising to concede it Arizona, New Mexico, and part of Texas as spoils of war, as being former Mexican territory.

Q.—Who were the British and French ambassadors to Germany at the outbreak of the war?

A.—Sir Edward Goschen, the British; and M. Jules Cambon, the French.

FREEDOM OF THE SEAS

Q.—What is meant by freedom of the seas?

A.—The American doctrine of freedom of seas is that merchant ships shall be free to traverse the seas of all the world, in war as well as in peace. Under this doctrine, there would be no commerce destroying, no taking of prizes and no seizures of cargoes. If it were in force now, a German warship could not seize a British or American ship, and a British or American warship could not seize a German ship. In other words, the navies might fight on the oceans, but private ships could pass them unafraid, flaunting their flags.

Q.—Could warships not interfere with them at all?

A.—The only qualification that the United States admits as part of this principle is that merchant ships shall be subject to the present rules of seizure, etc., if they attempt to enter ports that are actually under tangible blockade; and that all ships are subject to visit and search for contraband. Such contraband, however, must be clearly and specifically defined, and the list of contraband sharply limited to articles actually destined for military purposes.

Q.—Did the British blockade accord with International Law?

A.—According to international law, if a blockade is declared it must be effective; that is, warships must actually be within a certain distance of the port designated as invested. Britain is blockading Germany at Gibraltar, at the mouth of the Channel, and to the north of Scotland. Therefore, technically, a blockade does not exist and foodstuffs which, under no circumstances used to be regarded as contraband of war, could not be stopped.

Q.—But how about humanity?

A.—As to the matter of inhumanity, there is really little difference between besieging a town and starving the inhabitants into surrender, and besieging a nation with the object of starving it into giving in.

Q.—Has the food blockade by Great Britain been parallelled in past history?

A.—No; for the simple reason that never before has it been possible to isolate a country entirely. Napoleon tried to compel the European nations to cease trading with Great Britain, but as the British Fleet maintained command of the seas, his efforts came to naught. During the Civil War in America, the Southern ports were blockaded, but, as the country did not import edibles, it resolved itself into a blockade against munitions of war.

Q.—Was food blockade used in the American Civil War?

A.—The Northern fleets blockaded Southern ports, but not with the object of starving the Confederates into surrender by "food blockade." What President Lincoln wished to prevent was the receipt of arms and ammunition by the Southerners and the export of cotton, which was the chief and practically only source of financial income to the South. The seceding States, being wholly agricultural, were self-supporting so far as food was concerned.

Q.—When were modern blockade rules established?

A.—By the Congress of Paris in 1856, at the close of the Crimean War. This Congress laid down the following principles of maritime law: (1) privateering is and remains abolished; (2) neutral flag covers enemy goods, with the exception of contraband; (3) with the same exception, neutral goods under an enemy's flag are not subject to capture; (4) blockades to be binding must be effective. The declaration was signed by all the powers represented at the congress: England, France, Russia, Sardinia, Turkey, and Prussia. Most other powers have since signed. The United States did not sign, but has always observed the declaration and treated it as binding law. In 1898 the United States and Spain, neither of them a signatory, observed the rules.

Q.—Did the Germans qualify their war-zone decree as against the United States?

A.—They offered to permit free passage for one American ship each week in each

direction, using Falmouth as the port of arrival and departure. Obviously, the United States could not accept this with self-respect, not to mention the fact that by such acceptance we should have tacitly recognized the international legality of the German decree.

Q.—Can you give both sides of the "armed ship" controversy?

A.—The Allied governments claimed that a merchant ship "armed solely for defense" was not to be considered a warship. The Germans claimed that the line between "defense" and "offense" could not be drawn. Further, they claimed that Allied ships, or, at least, British ships, had secret instructions to sink submarines, either by ramming or gun-fire, and that, therefore, they rendered it impossible for a submarine to "visit and search."

Q.—Was there any truth in the German claim?

A.—In 1915 and 1916 the German Government transmitted to the United States Government a long series of British Admiralty orders and instructions found on British merchant ships captured by German vessels. The Germans declared that these instructions proved that British merchant ships had orders to "proceed aggressively against any submarine which comes in sight."

Q.—Did the United States ever question the right of merchant ships to arm?

A.—In January 18, 1916, the State Department sent a confidential letter to the British, French, Russian, and Italian ambassadors, the Belgian minister and, later, to the Japanese ambassador, in which the rights and duties of submarine war-vessels and of merchant ships were discussed, and the following statement was made: "I should add that my government (United States) is impressed with the reasonableness of the argument that a merchant ship carrying an armament of any sort, in view of the character of submarine warfare and the defensive weakness of undersea craft, should be held to be an auxiliary cruiser and so treated by a neutral, as well as by a belligerent government, and is seriously considering instructing its officials accordingly."

Q.—What did the United States finally do?

A.—Finding that the Allied governments declined to acknowledge that armed merchant ships lost their peaceful status when "armed solely for defense," the United States dropped the contention.

Q.—Is it necessary for a belligerent power to notify neutrals as to the position of mine fields that have been laid?

A.—Yes. The convention dealing with this matter says in Article 3: "When anchored automatic contact mines are employed, every possible precaution must be taken for the security of peaceful shipping. The belligerents undertake to do their utmost to render these mines harmless within a limited time, and should they cease to be under surveillance, to notify the danger zone as soon as military exigencies permit, by a notice addressed to shipowners, which must also be communicated to the governments through diplomatic channels." This leaves, of course, considerable loop-hole, as military exigencies may not permit the informing of neutrals concerning mine fields for a long time after they have been laid.

Q.—Have the positions of mine fields laid by Great Britain been declared to neutrals?

A.—Yes. They have been duly informed, as is provided in international law. The particulars of the large one which was laid down in January, 1917, have been published. According to this information the area of the field comprised all the waters, excepting the Dutch and Danish territorial waters—that is, within three miles of the coast—lying southwest and eastward of a line commencing four miles from the coast of Jutland, in latitude 56 north, and longitude 8 east, and passing through the following positions: Latitude 56 north, longitude 6 east; latitude 54 north, longitude 0.45 east; thence to a position in latitude 53 deg. 37 north, longitude 5 east, seven miles off the coast of Holland. That is, the field extends from a point four miles from the port of Ringkobing in Jutland, right across the North Sea, slanting rather southward, but including the Dogger Bank in its area, to a point off the coast of Yorkshire, a little south of Flamboro Head. From the Yorkshire coast, the area of the mine field runs southeast to the Dutch Frisian Islands. Its greatest width is about 320 miles, and north and south its greatest length is 170 miles. It entirely blocks the approach to the North Sea coast of Germany, excepting through neutral and territorial waters.

Q.—Did the Germans declare new war zones after the United States entered the war?

A.—They did. A decree of January 5, 1918, established two very large barred areas in the eastern Atlantic, one being around the Cape Verde Islands off the Senegal coast of Africa, and the other surrounding the Madeira and Azores Islands. The areas of the zones, as stated in the official communications sent to the United States Government through the Swiss Legation, were such as to cover the entrance to the Straits of Gibraltar and the usual steamship routes between European and South American ports, as well as routes to European ports from the Panama Canal, thus forcing extremely roundabout passages and hugely increased distance if ships desired to avoid the dangerous areas. One reason given by the Germans for the new zones was that the islands were being used as enemy supports.

Q.—Before submarines, did not regular cruisers sink captured merchant vessels?

A.—Yes. In doing so they exercised the right granted in international law to belligerent warships against enemy shipping. If they chose not to destroy a captured ship, but rather to send it to port under a prize-crew, that was due merely to the desire of the captors to gain benefit by keeping a valuable prize. They were not bound to preserve a captured ship.

Q.—Then why was there an outcry against sinkings by submarines?

A.—The cruiser or other large warship could take on board the crew and passengers of a captured ship. The submarine could not. Therefore, the submarine, even if it exercised the duty of "visit and search" scrupulously (in other words, even if it did not torpedo without warning), could not ensure the lives of those on the captured ship. They had to be set adrift in small boats.

Q.—Did warships never set crews of captured vessels into small boats?

A.—They did so often, as when a cruiser captured a prize near an enemy harbor and found it necessary to destroy the ship at once and get away. In such cases, the occupants were generally sent ashore in small boats. But it happened very rarely that such crews were set adrift far off-shore.

Q.—Were fleeing merchant ships shelled before the days of submarines?

A.—They were. Every warship fired on merchant ships that failed to obey the signal to lay to. If the merchant ship did not cease its efforts to escape, the pursuer continued to fire until the fugitive was either stopped or sunk.

Q.—What, exactly, are the rights of a merchant ship against an enemy warship?

A.—Practically only one right—the right of being immune from deadly attack if its master and crew implicitly obey the orders of the warship.

Q.—Is a neutral ship compensated for delay if captured?

A.—If his ship is found by the prize court not to be "a good prize," he is supposed to receive compensation. If contraband is found on board, it is confiscated, but the vessel goes free, unless the contraband exceeds half the entire cargo. If it does, his ship can be condemned, and, of course, the owner would get no compensation at all.

Q.—If a neutral supplies war material, is his State responsible?

A.—Certainly not. Individuals may do what they like, but at their own risk. They cannot claim the protection of their country if caught breaking international laws.

Q.—What is a prize court?

A.—It is a court appointed by any nation (by the President in the case of the United States) "to take cognizance of and judicially proceed upon all manner of captures, recaptures, prizes, vessels and goods, and all other matters of prize falling within its jurisdiction."

Q.—Are decisions of the prize court final?

A.—Great Britain allows appeals from her national prize courts to the Privy Council. The signatories to the London Declaration (which the belligerents in the war declined to obey) allowed appeal to

an International Prize Court established by the last Hague Conference. This International Court was to be composed of fifteen members. The eight Great Powers (including Japan) were to appoint one member each; the remaining seven were to be appointed by the smaller powers.

Q.—What happens ultimately to the German merchantmen that England has captured?

A.—That is decided by the prize courts. The rule that is laid down by international observance before the great war was that those vessels captured in port on the declaration of war and those taken at sea, which were not aware that a state of war existed, are merely detained, not condemned. At the end of the war these would be returned to their owners under this rule.

Q.—To whom do the prizes belong?

A.—Those captured during war time belong to the nation that captured them. The general custom has been for the crew of the vessel which captures a ship to receive a share of the value as prize money, but that, too, is a matter for the prize court.

Q.—What happens to the crew of a captured merchant ship?

A.—Under a special convention, to which both Great Britain and Germany are parties, they are supposed to be liberated on parole. Their names are sent to their government through the proper channel, and if they reach their native land they are not to be employed in the war. This has not always been done, however. Neutral sailors found on an enemy ship are liberated, but must fend for themselves.

Q.—What is meant by continuous voyage?

A.—If the ultimate destination of the goods, though shipped to a neutral port, is enemy's territory, this has been defined by Great Britain in this war as a continuous voyage, and the goods may be treated as if shipped direct to the enemy's territory. During its neutrality the United States declined to recognize this ruling.

Q.—Who is to determine whether supplies are for a neutral or actually for the enemy?

A.—Prize courts. In actual practice, of course, warships arrest vessels on suspicion and leave the prize court to settle things afterwards.

Q.—Before this war, was there ever a case of arrest of goods on the ground of continuous voyage?

A.—There has been only one case recorded when a Prize Court clearly condemned a vessel on this ground. It was during the war between Italy and Abyssinia. A Dutch ship was seized, although bound for a French colonial port, as she had on board rifles which had long gone out of use in Europe, and which were clearly destined for King Menelik of Abyssinia.

Q.—Did the Allies ever justify retaliation even if it harmed neutrals?

A.—Yes. On April 24, 1916, in the voluminous British note to Washington justifying sea-blockade, Sir Edward Grey said: "His Majesty's Government are surprised to notice that the United States seem to regard all such measures of retaliation in war as illegal if they should incidentally inflict injury on neutrals. The advantage which any such principle would give to the determined law-breaker would be so great that his Majesty's Government cannot conceive that it would commend itself to the conscience of mankind."

Q.—Did the north apply the "continuous voyage" doctrine in the Civil War?

A.—No. We did exactly the contrary. Many cargoes clearly destined for the Confederacy were shipped from Europe to Matamoras, a Mexican Gulf port almost on the Texan border. Federal naval vessels seized some of the ships, but the Federal prize courts released them and ordered that damages be paid to the owners, though it was proved beyond doubt that the cargoes were all to be passed across the Texan border. Our State Department stated that such seizures were illegal. Great Britain at that time protested against any "continuous voyage" doctrine.

AMERICAN ARMY IN FRANCE

Q.—Why did we decide suddenly to hurry an army to France?

A.—Because the French Military Mission which visited this country under General Joffre appealed to this country to do so. Several causes had combined to make it necessary. The disintegration of Russia as a military power was, of course, the chief cause. But the French losses in recent offensives had been exceedingly heavy, and though the achievements had been brilliant from a heroic viewpoint, they had turned out to be comparative failures strategically. There had followed a decided shattering of morale among the French people, who had begun to lose hope of ultimate success. Facing these critical conditions, General Joffre urged that even a few American troops would be invaluable at that particular time.

Q.—How many American soldiers went to Europe in 1917?

A.—January, 1918, the Secretary of War declared officially that "instead of having 50,000 or 100,000 men in France, we have many more than that. We will have more than half a million men in France early in 1918, and we will have 1½ million who, if the transportation facilities are available, can be shipped to France during 1918." This was the first specific information given to the world regarding the size of the American Expeditionary Force in France.

Q.—What kind of place is France to live in?

A.—That part of France where the American soldiers are is mainly agricultural country, with big sections in vineyards. There are long stretches of flat country, but much of the land is very pretty, with many hills and woods.

The climate is mild, but there is a good deal of rain, making much drizzly weather. The summers show no very high average temperature, but to most foreigners the heat seems great.

Q.—Where do the American boys spend their days off? In Paris?

A.—No. Paris has been found to be demoralizing to the men, and a dangerous focus of infection and contagion through the loathsome disease that menaces every army when its men mingle with the women of big cities. Therefore, the American Government has arranged with the French Government to get a very large control of certain places behind the American lines, and these have been turned into recreation cities for our men.

They are in the beautiful department of Savoy (Savoie), which abuts on the Swiss border and is wedged in between Switzerland and Italy. It adjoins the most magnificent mountain scenery in the world, Mont Blanc being on its eastern border.

The delightful and noted resort of Aix-les-Bains is one of the recreation cities in this region. The big casino there has been turned over to the American Y. M. C. A., and play-houses and other amusements have been established. Another town is Chambery, where three casinos and a theater have been leased for the use of the Americans. Still another place is Challes-les-Eaux.

Professional performers and volunteer workers arrange for every possible sort of amusement. In addition, there are mountain climbing, boating, automobiling, etc.

Q.—Is trench-warfare new?

A.—It is as old as war. The Greeks and Persians utilized trenches 2,400 years ago. Cæsar's Roman Legions held trenches in Belgium.

Q.—Why is it referred to as new so often, even by military writers?

A.—It is new in the sense that in the great war it became the fundamental feature of warfare, whereas before that trenches had been used only incidentally. The British and Germans took to trenches in September, 1914, the battle of the Aisne being the last open battle.

Q.—What caused this?

A.—The immense amount of modern artillery, its immense range, and its great rapidity of fire.

Q.—How has modern artillery forced trench-warfare?

A.—By creating death-zones that are so deep (owing to the enormous variety in gun-range), and so impassable (owing

to the lightning-like fire), that two fairly equal armies, trying to fight a pitched battle in the open, would both be decimated in the attempt to close with each other.

Q.—What is the essential feature of trench-warfare?

A.—The soldiers holding the actual battle-front are in deep trenches that face each other everywhere. Sometimes the opposing trenches are only a few hundred feet apart. Sometimes they are as much as a mile apart, according to conditions.

Q.—Do these men fight all the time?

A.—No. For days they may not exchange a shot. For weeks there may not be anything at a given place except occasional raids or the attempts of scouting parties to gain information.

Q.—What are the raids for?

A.—Partly to keep the other side on edge, and to injure its morale by killing as many enemies as possible. A leading reason for raids, however, is the desire to bring back prisoners.

Q.—What object is to be gained by making prisoners?

A.—Usually only a few prisoners are secured. But an examination of the prisoners may give valuable information. By discovering what body of troops they belong to, the captors may learn about important changes in the enemy line, etc. Cross-examination of the prisoners may betray enemy weaknesses.

Q.—Just what is a trench raid?

A.—In the trench raids developed in this war, a very small number of men—sometimes not more than ten, sometimes as many as a hundred—make a sudden surprise rush on opposing lines that contain ten or a hundred times their number and enough machine guns and cannon to wipe the raiding party out of existence, except for the elements of surprise and speed. Thus the raid must only take a very few minutes. If it occupies more time, generally all the raiders are killed or captured. As soon as the surprise is over, the enemy counter-attacks unless the raiders have succeeded in getting back to their own trenches with their booty and prisoners.

Q.—Are all the men in trenches now?

A.—No. The immense bodies of troops in reserve, etc., are behind the trenches, well out of gun-fire, in camps and villages just as in previous wars, the chief difference being that they are much farther behind the actual battle-front, in order to be out of the range of enemy cannon.

Q.—Do the trenches form an unbroken line across Europe?

A.—By no means. There are hundreds of miles of them, but there is much territory that is made so impassable by artillery or by nature, that it does not have to be held by men actually in line.

Q.—Why could not one side or the other break through a thinly held trench-line?

A.—It could. But it would be of no use. The only success that can be achieved in trench-warfare is to break through a fairly broad front of trench and then drive so great a body of troops and artillery into the breach as to threaten a big extent of enemy line on both sides of the opening.

Q.—But could not this be done by a sudden stroke?

A.—To do so remains the hope and aim of all the opposing commanders. But the great difficulty is that such a stroke demands the element of surprise, and there are three important obstacles to surprise in modern warfare.

Q.—What are the obstacles to surprise?

A.—Aerial scouting, which gives each side sharp notice of movements. The defensive power of long-range guns, which enables the attacked side to pour tremendous curtain-fire on the assailants from guns so far in the rear that the attacking troops cannot possibly reach and capture them. The assailant's vital need for lots of artillery on his side which prevents him from bringing up enough artillery in time to drive home a surprise attack on a truly grand scale.

Q.—Do both sides use the same system of trenches?

A.—Practically. After the German trench-systems were severely punished by

the British and French method of pounding them for days with destructive long-range fire of almost incredible severity, the Germans did devise a certain change, by which they established the so-called "pill-box system." But except for this modification, the system is much the same on each side.

Q.—What are "pill boxes?"

A.—The "pill box" is a name given by the British to a concrete block-house introduced by the Germans, during the early part of 1917, in an endeavor to find a better method of defense against the Allies' gun-fire than the trench system. These block-houses are scattered to a considerable depth over the country to be defended and have proven to be a very effective system of defense. Most of them are garrisoned by twelve men and armed with one or more machine guns. Some of the larger ones have garrisons of as many as sixty men.

Q.—What are trench gates?

A.—The modern trench is divided into sections by gates faced with barbed wire. Their purpose is to prevent raiding parties from rushing along the trench. Often the operation of opening the gate is slow and involved so that a party of raiders shall lose too many precious moments in getting through, even if it is clear how the gate can be opened.

Q.—Are the men close together in the trenches?

A.—In very important places the soldiers may be shoulder to shoulder. In other places not so important or not open to sudden attack, the trenches may be held so thinly that there is a man only every few yards. Some trench-lines are held only by scattered machine-gun companies.

Q.—What is the difference between a machine gun and a rifle?

A.—The rifle is the great one-man weapon of war. It is mobile—that is, the man can carry it with him anywhere and he can carry a large amount of ammunition for it. He can use it quickly and easily. Its mechanism is such that a common soldier easily learns how to take care of it.

The machine gun is much heavier, requires more than one man for its efficient use, and fires such huge quantities of ammunition that that cannot be carried by the soldiers themselves, but must be transported specially. Its mechanism is more complicated and thus requires special knowledge and training.

Q.—Must soldiers at the front live in trenches all the time?

A.—No. Only the soldiers actually holding the front-lines are in trenches, and even they are not kept there for too long a time. The custom is to relieve men from trench duty as often as it can be done. The soldiers not on trench duty are well behind the front-lines, generally safely beyond all danger of gun-fire from the enemy. They live in villages, cantonments, and, sometimes, in tents—but mostly they dwell with pretty complete comfort in houses.

Q.—How do American soldiers live when training for the front?

A.—The men are generally billeted in villages, and frequently sleep in barns. The first thing they do in taking up their quarters is to police the community. Policing means, largely, cleaning up and moving or burning everything that endangers health and order, purifying the water and making sure in general of sanitary arrangements. There is nearly always a store or two selling American matches, groceries, canned things, and, in fact, pretty nearly everything a general store would carry—but no liquor.

Q.—When did our boys take over part of the front line?

A.—In February 5, 1918, there was published in the United States a statement that "the sector occupied by the American troops is northwest of Toul."

Q.—Where was this?

A.—This description showed that they were occupying a line between Pont-a-Mousson and St. Mihiel, the latter the farthest southern salient of the famous Verdun positions.

The American troops had the formidable line of Toul-Nancy-Luneville behind them—one of the greatest of the French fortification systems.

Q.—Was not this the scene of the first big fighting in the war?

A.—Early in the war the French tried to break through into Germany from the gateway of the land dominated by Nancy. Successful at first, they were forced back, and the Germans, in turn, tried to break

through this immense sector of fortifications (Verdun - Toul - Nancy - Luneville) and sweep forward into France. They made a considerable advance, actually threatening Nancy with capture. But though the French forces had met a bad defeat in the battles of August 20, 21, 1914, they succeeded in the end in holding the German forces much on the lines still occupied three years later.

Q.—When American troops took over this front line, was any German territory held by the Allies?

A.—Yes. In Alsace. South of Lorraine the French held trenches in German territory, extending from Colmar, a town in Alsace, to the Swiss border. It was a small strip, but of great sentimental and moral value to the French.

Q.—What is a forlorn hope?

A.—It is a service so desperate that few or none of the men who undertake it may hope to survive. For this reason, officers rarely order men to forlorn hope service, but call for volunteers.

A forlorn hope rarely is called for among troops who are on the offensive. It is almost always a part of a desperate defensive, such as blowing up a bridge under terrific bombardment, holding some post to delay a victorious enemy, and so on.

Now and then a victoriously advancing commander may call for forlorn hope service to attack some formidable position, knowing that the men will be destroyed but hoping that they will also destroy the enemy stronghold, and thus, by sacrificing their own lives, save the lives of many comrades.

Q.—When a trench is heavily bombarded, are the men not allowed to retreat from it?

A.—Soldiers posted in a trench must stay in it till they get direct orders to leave it. They may crouch in bomb-proof excavations within the trenches and otherwise conceal themselves from the bursting projectiles, because they know that while the shells are falling on their trench, the enemy soldiers cannot assault it. But were they to leave it, the enemy might instantly stop his fire and send his troops in. A breach thus made in even a limited section of front might affect an army-front of many miles.

Q.—Why should a successful breach in an army front imperil hundreds of miles?

A.—While a successful breach is extremely difficult to establish, as we have said, such a breach, if sufficiently wide, may let the enemy force men and guns through and expand them into army formation on the other side, thus raising a formidable menace of rear-attack.

A modern army-front cannot simply walk away from its position. Hundreds of huge cannon must be moved, and these are as heavy as industrial machinery. Thousands of other guns, lighter, but still not easily moved, must be saved from possible capture. Hundreds of tons of supplies have to be shifted. For this reason a threatened army cannot wait too long. It cannot always assure itself that the breach in its line is serious. The only absolute safety is to fall back and re-form where the enemy again may be faced by a solid and unpenetrated front.

Q.—Is it possible for men to live through a bombardment directly on the trenches?

A.—Yes. The trenches are deep but narrow, and on the side toward the enemy there is a high mound of earth or of sand-bags. No matter how accurate artillerists may be, it is impossible to aim so accurately that the shells shall actually fall and burst inside of the trenches. Most of them hit the sheltering mound or drop just in front of them. The explosion of these shells rarely does direct damage to the men in the trenches, and the greatest danger from them is caused by flying fragments of the bursting shell.

Another proportion of shells flies over the trench and bursts just beyond. These are more dangerous if they explode close to it, because the rear of the trench is not so well protected, though modern trenches do have mounds erected against this "back-fire."

Even if shells burst in the trench, however, they are not necessarily fatal to anybody, because of the bomb-proofs scattered along the trenches to give men shelter.

In addition, as the trenches are not straight, but zig-zag, a shell bursting inside of a trench cannot send its fragments through more than a limited area.

"Shell-shock" is the thing that, probably, puts more men out of commission than actual wounding or killing.

Q.—What is barrage fire?

A.—Literally it means a fire to bar men. It is an artillery method which has become possible only through the modern improvements in guns and time-fuse shells, and the use of airplanes, telephones and wireless to keep the artillerists constantly informed as to the effect of their work.

When it is decided to establish a barrage, a line of guns is so fired as to drop an incessant shower of shells along a given zone. This bursting inferno, which is kept up for as many minutes or hours as may be demanded by the particular operation, is a barrage through which no number of men can pass.

Q.—How is barrage used?

A.—A barrage may be "laid down" behind an enemy's front line, thus cutting that front line off from re-enforcements, supplies, etc. This is done by so dropping the shells that they explode continually along every communication road and on every depot of supplies. When the front line has been thus cut off, a charge by a superior number of opponents may result in the destruction or capture of all the isolated men.

Another way to use a barrage is by "advancing" it gradually—that is, the barrage first falls on a certain part of the enemy line, and the attacking troops advance just behind it. The guns then lay the barrage a little further ahead, and the attacking force advances again, and so on. This is known as "creeping barrage."

Creeping barrage aims to demolish first the enemy barbed-wire entanglements; then the enemy trenches; then the communicating trenches, and so on, thus clearing the way for the attacking troops.

If an attack is threatened on its own trenches, the artillery tries to lay down a defensive barrage—that is, it tries to make a zone of explosive fire in front of its own trenches to prevent the assailants from approaching, and if the attack is serious, it tries to lay a heavy barrage behind the assailants, for the double purpose of preventing re-enforcements and of preventing their retreat, thus making possible their capture or destruction.

Q.—What is the difference between a defeat and a rout?

A.—A defeat, even though it may be of the utmost gravity, still leaves the defeated force in some sort of coherent organization. It may not be able to fight again, but it has a chance. Even if it has no real chance left, it still remains a factor to be reckoned with. Until it is eliminated, the enemy, however victorious, has not obtained a free hand.

A rout, on the other hand, is not only an utter defeat, but it is the elimination of the defeated force. A routed force, big or little, is one that has no organization left. It has disintegrated into individuals who are fleeing in disordered multitude, leaving their military equipment on the field, and not seeking to make a stand anywhere, except as desperation may drive them.

Q.—If a soldier crawls into an enemy trench to spy, and is caught, what happens to him?

A.—If he is in the uniform of his own army, he must be treated like any other prisoner of war. If he is disguised in any way, either in civilian garb or the enemy uniform, he is subject to treatment as a spy.

Q.—Could raiders not get into a German trench with machine guns and clean it out?

A.—They could clean out only a small part, because all trenches, German and Allied, are so dug that there are no very long straight stretches. Every little while there is a sharp bend. This is done for the very purpose of preventing such an occurrence as an "enfilading fire," which is the technical term for raking a military position.

Q.—What is the meaning of "troops in reserve?"

A.—In battle only a certain proportion of troops are engaged on each side. It is one of the purposes of each commander to tempt or force his opponent to throw in all his men, while he himself holds his own men "in reserve"—that is, he keeps a great force of men safely in the rear with the object of suddenly hurling in these fresh, unwearied, unshaken men when the men of the other side are tired out.

Q.—Why would it not be better to push all the men in at once and thus strike a crushing blow in the very beginning?

A.—It would be excellent, if it could be done. Sometimes, under very unusual circumstances, a military genius does do it, and he wins a great victory. But it

cannot often be done. The geography of a battle-front, the necessity of guarding innumerable possible points of attack and so on, force generals to bring only a part of an army into actual combat at first.

But there is another big reason for not throwing in all available men at once. It is the same reason that leads a prize-fighter not to put all his strength into the first few rounds—the fear of physical exhaustion. Men become vastly exhausted in battle. They must, after a few hours, get relief or support. It has happened many times in history that victorious troops have so worn themselves out to win, that in the end they were too tired to drive the victory home, and so lost its fruits because no reserves were available.

Q.—What is shell-shock?

A.—Shell-shock is a condition of temporary mental, nervous and physical collapse caused by an explosion occurring in close proximity to the individual, or by a prolonged period of exposure in a place where there is very heavy and incessant bursting-fire.

The most usual cases of shell-shock are caused by one big explosion very close to the victim. Paralysis, mental stupor, intense sensitiveness of the superficial nerves, violent pains that often appear to have no real reason, involuntary muscular motions, deafness, sometimes blindness and dumbness—any or all of these symptoms may be observed in sufferers.

The condition first became a decidedly big hospital-fact in the present war. Much has been done to relieve it, but there still is much to learn about it. The chief line of treatment is directed toward cheering the mind of the patient and soothing the nervous condition or building it up. The fortunate fact about it appears to be that it is generally temporary. The period of recovery, however, may be very long indeed.

Q.—Is it true that soldiers have liquor given to them before going over the top?

A.—Our men apparently are not to have liquor doled out to them, but the British practice has been to give the men a "tot" of rum (the liquor made from sugar-cane syrup) before going into any difficult action and also after unusual exposure to weather.

The French are very liberal with wine, and, in fact, French soldiers drink it largely in place of water. The American army management has not laid down the principle of teetotalism as an iron-clad law, and experience will no doubt be the guide.

Q.—Do the officers go into the trenches with the soldiers?

A.—The lieutenants do almost always, to a number sufficient to maintain efficient command of the company or the detachment in each particular trench sector. The non-commissioned officers, of course, accompany their squads.

The captain of a company usually is with his men if the whole company occupies a particular sector. Otherwise he may remain on detached duty in the rear, or he may occupy a bomb-proof or other station in the trenches or behind them where he can maintain uninterrupted telephone communication with his men.

Q.—Are the men in the trenches under pretty constant gun-fire?

A.—Sometimes men may hold trenches throughout their entire tour of duty without receiving a hostile shot. Many times soldiers hold considerable extents of trenches for two or even more weeks and experience only occasional shelling. It all depends on the conditions of war at the time. Even when things are pretty active along the entire front as a whole, there will be sections of front that seem to be neglected.

Q.—Do the men in the trenches have to cook their own food?

A.—Sometimes. In extreme cases where a very heavy and sustained bombardment destroys communications, they have to fall back on the emergency rations which each modern soldier carries with him.

In the ordinary course of the trench-war, however, hot meals are delivered with notable regularity. The field-kitchens behind the trenches supply the food, and it is carried in big cans through communication trenches to the men.

Q.—Have the men in the trenches no cannon with which to defend themselves?

A.—Cannon would be of no possible use in trenches. The enemy trenches are so close to ours that machine-gun and rifle-fire make a perfect defense. Even if cannon were of any use in trenches, which they are not, it would be madness to put them there, because any drive

that succeeds in breaking through a trench anywhere would thus result in a loss of valuable artillery.

Modern artillery has such immense range that it can perfectly defend the trenches from situations so far behind them that it is absolutely out of danger of capture from any ordinary attacks.

Q.—What is the trench-mortar?

A.—This is a weapon produced by the modern trench-warfare. It is a little mortar, so light that it can be transported with ease by a couple of men; and unlike other gunnery weapons it requires comparatively little science. Practically speaking, it simply supplements the hand-thrown grenade—that is, it throws a bomb into the enemy trench in the same way in which a man would toss a hand-grenade.

Its range does not have to be much greater than that attained by a hand-thrown bomb, for it is used solely for trench-to-trench war. It shoots its big oval or sausage-shaped bomb well up into the air with a muffled boom, and the projectile describes a big curve. The bomb is fitted with a time-fuse as a rule, but may also be made to explode on impact.

Q.—Do aircraft drop many bombs into the trenches?

A.—Very few. The anti-aircraft guns force airplanes to remain as high as from 5,000 to 10,000 feet. At this height the trenches are only like a thin streak to the airman's eye. In addition, as an airplane can never stop while in the air, but must keep moving continuously and at a high speed, it is practically impossible to fix the right instant for dropping a bomb so that it will hit any specific object below.

Therefore trenches are rarely badly bombed, except when some very extraordinary circumstance gives a plane the chance to swoop low and speed along the length of a trench for a sufficient distance to loose bombs with some degree of accuracy.

Q.—Have the men in trenches any shelter against the weather?

A.—Sometimes the trenches, especially where a line has been held for some time, are fitted with very comfortable underground dwellings with light and heat. But men soon become inured to outdoor exposure. City people, softened by house-living, do not realize how large a proportion of every population spends the great part of its life in exposure to all kinds of weather, not only without suffering, but actually with much better health than the city-dwellers.

Q.—How do soldiers in France get water?

A.—In the army zone, reservoirs and hydrants are erected near camps, barracks and hospitals, and tank stations spaced along the roads for the accommodation of the traveling kitchens and motor tank wagons. These hold 1,000 gallons and they bring water to the fighting line, where it is removed in kegs or skins into the trenches.

A water supply is also obtained from springs and properly fitting them out to avoid contamination. Wells are cleaned out, disinfected and provided with a pumping plant. Many new wells are driven, and where a large supply of water is required, veritable waterworks have been constructed, with pumping machines and pipe lines several miles in length. The water supply department of the French Army consists of 3,500 men and 75 officers. It has fitted out 3,800 existing wells and sunk 2,000 new ones. The total amount of piping laid amounts to 200 miles.

Q.—What is the exact technical composition of a "sector"?

A.—Technically it is that part of the front line occupied by a battalion. The organization of a sector consists of:

(1) Accessory defenses which are made to arrest and retard the enemy advancing under fire of the defense;

(2) The first line of surveillance occupied by a few men from which all ground in front can be well seen;

(3) The line of resistance occupied strongly, which must be defended whatever happens;

(4) Lines of support which are strongly organized centers, defended while new lines in the rear are being formed; all are connected by communication trenches and protected by barbed wire.

Q.—What is the first thing men do in a trench if they see enemies approaching to attack?

A.—Soldiers rarely attack a trench-line that way. A trench usually is pounded by artillery first, to destroy it and drive its defenders out, or so stun and decimate them that they cannot offer resistance to the enemy charge, which does not follow till the artillery has done its work.

Against a charge such as is suggested

the men in the trenches would direct a converging fire from all the machine guns in their line, supplemented by "sheet-fire" from their rifles, all discharged as fast as the defenders can shoot, so as to make a zone of destruction through which assailants cannot pass.

Meantime they will have telephoned or telegraphed to their headquarters in the rear, and the officers there will instantly order heavy fire from their artillery to sweep the front of the threatened trench sector.

Q.—Is No Man's Land a neutral zone?

A.—It is just the reverse. The zone between the opposing trenches is called No Man's Land because it is not possible for either side to hold it, and because no man may venture on it except at imminent risk of death. It is over this No Man's Land that the daring detachments from both sides creep out at night to make raids on the enemy lines, or to gather information.

Q.—Is the term "Jam Pot" a nickname for something else?

A.—In the very early stages of the war it was a nickname only in a partial sense. The British troops, being unprepared for hand grenade work, while the Germans were well equipped for that kind of warfare, converted jam pots and similar things into emergency grenades, loading them with explosives and tossing them into German trenches with lighted fuses attached. Now that the Allies are well supplied with regular grenades, the term remains as a nickname pure and simple.

Q.—How many kinds of hand grenades are there?

A.—So many that apparently only a few specialists in explosives can tell offhand how many varieties are being used. They are all similar, however, in the main principle: that is, whatever their shape and size may be, they are high-explosive bombs to be tossed by hand-power into enemy positions. Some are thrown like a baseball. Others are hurled from slings. Still others are attached to sticks.

The most simple are provided with a common fuse that is lit by the soldier just before he tosses the grenade. The more elaborate ones are fitted with very ingenious exploding devices, some being so-called time-fuses, others being contact devices.

The great object is to insure explosion of the bomb the moment it gets to the "right place." Slow fuses often enable the enemy to snatch a bomb when it arrives and throw it back at the men who sent it. On the other hand a fuse that discharges the grenade too swiftly may make it burst "at home."

Q.—Does the term "sapper" mean anything?

A.—It means literally a soldier who saps—that is, drives a tunnel or a trench toward an enemy position. Such an approach by digging is known as "sapping" and the trench or tunnel is called a "sap."

Sappers, miners and pioneers are among the very oldest military formations of the world. They were important parts of armies long before gunpowder was invented. The Romans, who besieged Carthage in the days of Hamilcar and Hannibal, used sapping extensively.

The modern sapper is part of the engineer corps of the army, and sappers are employed like the other arms of that service for all kinds of engineering work, from building roads and bridges to driving the old-fashioned tunnel under an enemy fortification and blowing it up.

Q.—Is the so-called fire-trench an advanced trench?

A.—No. The fire-trench is the actual front line of trenches permanently held by the regular front-line troops. It represents the true and actual battle-front. It is called "fire-trench" to distinguish it from the many subsidiary trenches of a defense system, such as communication trenches, lateral trenches, listening post trenches, etc.

Q.—Are listening posts inside of the trenches or outside?

A.—Listening posts are in No Man's Land between the trenches. They are in trenches that have been dug out toward the enemy trench, and they are as near to the foe as the conditions permit. They are elaborately surrounded with barbed wire, and are used mostly at night, when a soldier creeps into the post and listens for any sound in the enemy lines that may warn him of an intended raid, of any movement or transfer of troops, etc.

Q.—Why do men at the front call an unexploded shell a "dud"?

A.—"Dud" is a slang English word, meaning something the same as the American slang-word "dub." It was a

natural thing to apply the term to a shell that fails to explode after it strikes.

Q.—If two armies not quite equal in numbers meet, must the smaller one always take the defensive?

A.—If the armies are well matched in quality and in natural positions, the smaller one must take the defensive almost always, but not always. It depends on the commanding officers. If these are well matched, the larger army will usually force the offense, thus leaving nothing but defense to the smaller. But a superior general often assumes a successful offensive with a smaller army; and, vice versa, an inferior general will prosecute an offensive with his larger army so unskilfully that as the battle develops he will find himself forced into the defensive.

Q.—What would be the military advantage to either side of going through Switzerland?

A.—If it were not for the fact that Switzerland is prepared to defend her neutrality bloodily, a surprise attack through the northwestern corner of Switzerland, where it abuts on the German and French lines, might be of advantage, for the assailant could hope to push so big an army through that his enemy's whole front would have to fall back.

Thus German forces pouring through that corner might force an abandonment of the entire Vosges line and leave the French Verdun line critically "in the air."

A French invasion of Germany through that part of Switzerland might force the Germans to abandon all of Alsace.

Considered in practical detail, however, such an attack would present huge difficulties to either side. The troops and their vast lines of supplies would have only very narrow mountain valleys to pass through, and either side could probably block the narrow outlets.

Q.—How can an American send gifts to soldiers at the front?

A.—By parcel post or express, but only if sender can show a written request from the soldier, approved by his commanding officer. Tie parcel securely, but do not seal, as it must be inspected.

The sender's name and address should be written plainly on the upper left hand corner.

The address of the soldier must be as follows:

JOHN SMITH,
Company C, 9th Infantry,
American Expeditionary Forces,
France.

The exact location or station of the company must not be given on the address.

Q.—Must foreign tariff duty be paid on gifts sent to men abroad?

A.—The following announcement has been received through the State Department of the conditions whereby gift parcels containing dutiable goods sent by parcel post may be delivered free of duty in Great Britain, when intended for officers and men of the U. S. Army and Navy serving in the United Kingdom, for soldiers of American nationality serving in the British or Canadian forces, or for American medical officers serving in British military or base hospitals:

"The British Board of Customs announce the following conditions whereby gift parcels containing dutiable goods may be delivered free of duty: Such parcels intended for officers and men of United States Navy in United Kingdom should be addressed for delivery on board ship in which addressee is serving; when intended for members of American Army in United Kingdom, should be addressed to regimental address of recipient; when intended for soldiers of American nationality in British or Canadian armies or for American medical officers serving in British military or base hospitals, should be addressed in care of Committee for American Soldiers and Sailors of the American Red Cross, 154 New Bond street, London, England, which committee will verify right of addressee to duty-free concession and arrange for delivery of parcels. Dutiable goods must be specifically described as tobacco, cigarettes, chocolate, etc. Foregoing relates solely to dutiable goods imported by parcels post."

Q.—What postage must our men abroad pay on mail to America?

A.—Under an Act of Oct. 3, 1917, all troops, sailors and marines of the United States serving abroad are entitled to free postage on their mail back to the United States provided that this mail bears the sender's name, etc., in the upper left hand

corner or bears other evidence to indicate that it is from a soldier or sailor.

Q.—What is meant by "tagging" a soldier?

A.—All armies engaged in the war, with the possible exception of the Russians, supply their men with identification tags, generally worn on a string passing around the neck. Modern warfare is so terrible that the ordinary means of identification fail completely, and if it were not for these tags families would be caused untold misery because of inability to learn the fate of their loved ones. The British soldier is provided with a circular aluminum tag containing his draft number, name, regiment and religion. The French are using a metal tag made in duplicate and capable of being split. This allows one half of the tag to be left with the dead body while the other half is forwarded to the proper authorities for checking purposes. The Germans make use of a similar tag. The American Navy has a tag which is decidedly unique, in that it carries the thumbprint of the bearer.

Q.—What is the cost of equipping an American infantryman?

A.—The War Department states that the cost of equipping the average soldier is $156.71. Of this amount $101.62 is expended for clothing, $7.73 for eating utensils, and $47.36 for fighting equipment.

Q.—What are the food requirements of a large army?

A.—For an army of 500,000 men two and a half million pounds of food must be allowed daily. In a month an army of this size will use thirteen million pounds of beef, fifteen million pounds of potatoes, one million pounds of coffee and three million pounds of sugar.

Q.—Is the Government employing women telephone operators to go abroad?

A.—Women telephone operators to be sent abroad by the War Department will wear a distinctive uniform and will be considered from a military standpoint as in a similar position to the members of the British Women's Auxiliary Corps, according to information given out by the U. S. Signal Corps. Wives of Army officers and enlisted men now in Europe or about to go will not be accepted for the unit, it is stated. It is very probable that a large number of women will be required, as General Pershing has found it impossible to obtain satisfactory operators with the necessary linguistic requirements. To become eligible to this unit women must be between twenty-three and thirty-five years of age, with a few possible exceptions in case of maximum age. They must be in good health, and speak both French and English with ease. It is preferred that they have had some experience in telephone switchboard operating, as even in cases of experienced operators it has been found necessary to give some preliminary training in this country before sending them abroad. Salaries range from $60 to $125 a month, with allowances of rations and quarters, the same as now accorded to Army nurses.

Q.—What is meant by the "Hindenburg Line"?

A.—The Hindenburg Line is the system of German entrenchments on the western war front, so called after the commander of the German Field Forces, who established it after the Somme fighting in 1916. This line, the defensive against which the Allied armies are battling, consists of three main sections, the northern end being the "Wotan" line, the center the "Siegfried" line and the southern end the "Albrecht" line. At present the line is a crescent filling toward the west, with the horns at the North Sea on the north and the Aisne River on the south.

Q.—Do Allied war plans call for distinct campaign areas?

A.—Yes. The Allied front is divided into three sections, a British front from the North Sea to the Oise River, a distance of about 125 miles; a French front from the Oise to Verdun, some 150 miles; and an American front from Verdun to the Swiss frontier. The present plans also provide for an independent system of railroads from behind each front to certain selected seaports, making three distinct lines of communication from the sea to the firing line. The American front is also known in dispatches as the "Lorraine Front."

Q.—What are the duties of a company clerk when his company is sent to France?

A.—Ordinarily a company clerk would perform his duties away from the firing line. The exigencies of the service, however, especially in war time, demand many departures from ordinary rules and

customs and a company clerk going abroad may be required to perform duty anywhere.

Q.—How many shoes does a soldier need?

A.—General Pershing has requested shipment of 18,590 pairs of shoes for each 25,000 men monthly, which is approximately nine pairs of shoes per man per year. "This quantity," said Secretary Baker, "is in excess of actual consumption, and is being used by General Pershing to build up a reserve for all troops in France. When such a supply is accumulated, the quantities will be reduced."

The Quartermaster-General's Department had on hand before the end of February, 1918, and due on outstanding contracts 7,564,000 field shoes and 7,873,000 marching shoes.

Q.—Are knitted socks and helmets really useful?

A.—The usefulness of both socks and helmets is assured from the fact that the various philanthropic organizations supplying such articles are constantly urged to send more.

With regard to the knitted socks, it is urged that an added supply is most necessary for our soldiers abroad if their feet are to be kept in good condition. England and Canada allot a pair of socks daily to each of their soldiers, while the United States Government furnishes its men with two pairs weekly.

Q.—What do our soldiers like best as presents?

A.—Soap, knives, tobacco, tobacco pouches, key rings, pipes, games, especially cards, chewing gum, eating chocolate, mouth organs, and other small musical instruments.

Among larger gifts are rubber pillows, rubber overcoats, warm underclothing and knitted articles.

Q.—What extra army pay is allowed for foreign service?

A.—Foreign service pay is twenty per cent of the pay of the grade without the war increase. For instance, an enlisted man who receives $15 on his first enlistment, if serving in France, will receive $3 for foreign service pay and $15 war increase, a total of $33.

Q.—How many soldiers voted in the first election under arms?

A.—In the election of November, 1917, the entire military vote (cast by recruits in national encampments at home, citizen soldiers in France, and citizen sailors on naval vessels) was 50,475.

Q.—How much does it cost to feed a soldier?

A.—A little less than 40 cents a day in the camps in the United States. The figures from one camp, Camp Devens in Massachusetts, show that when the men were first assembling there the cost for each man per day was 40½ cents. In September, 1917, when the supply had been organized thoroughly the cost was 38¾ cents.

Q.—How can soldiers in France get eyeglasses if they break the ones they have?

A.—There are optical units with the army. A base plant is provided with elaborate optical machinery and workmen, capable of turning out several hundred pairs of glasses a day with all the accuracy of an optical manufacturing establishment at home. Automobile units will work immediately behind the lines for emergency repairs, fitting, etc.

Q.—How many soldiers can a ship carry?

A.—The old estimates used to be one man to every two tons of cargo capacity. This was the European army usage. There has been some dispute in America since the troops began to go over-seas, because some experts hold that two tons is not a sufficient allowance for a modern soldier with the great amount of equipment and supply that must accompany troops. The Secretary of War adhered to the two-ton calculation. Others asserted that the amount needed for each man was five tons, but it may be said that this is extreme. It is evident that some of the experts who hold to the five-ton calculation are figuring not simply on the actual transport per man, but also on the tonnage needed to continue sending supplies after the man has landed in France.

Q.—Does a soldier's outfit actually weigh two tons?

A.—Not at all. "Tons" means space, not weight. This "tonnage" measurement

of merchant ships really was not invented by sailors or ship-builders. It was devised by tax-collectors. In the days of the Stuarts in England it was decided by that habitually hard-up government to levy port taxes and dues of all sorts on shipping. To ascertain what each vessel should pay, the tax collectors devised the scheme of taxing each according to the number of "tuns" (great hogsheads) that it could carry. These tuns probably were selected because at that time wine, tobacco, and many other cargoes were carried in tuns. Certain measurements of cargo space were laid down, and, according to this "tunnage" the ship was taxed.

Q.—What are corps troops?

A.—They are an addition to the army corps devised to meet the necessities of warfare on the French front. When the six-division corps was organized, this body of "corps troops" was added. Corps troops are made up of artillery units, engineers and many other types of service battalions, and their duty is to maintain the line of communication for their own corps. They comprise about 30,000 men.

Q.—What is a line of communication?

A.—In the first place, you must understand that it is a "line" only technically. Actually it is the system of roads and depots situated safely behind an army, from and over which there must go an unending stream of supplies to the troops in front. An American field army in France (which would consist of three army corps) must have from 125,000 to 130,000 men (corps troops) to maintain all the avenues of supply. As a matter of fact, General Pershing's "lines of communication" extend from the Lorraine trenches clear across France to the ports where the ocean transport service lands the supplies from America.

Q.—Was there a definite plan for American artillery at the front?

A.—Yes. Before April, 1918, a very elaborate plan had been worked out on a scale that was said to exceed anything ever before attempted in artillery. There were to be groups of mobile howitzers with 6, 8, 10 and 12 inches diameter, and also batteries of the great all-steel rifled cannon such as have been used in our coast fortifications. These were to be 10- and 12-inch guns. It was also hoped at that time to add to the system some of the newest American naval rifled cannon, the 16-inch. The Navy ordnance works were progressing so well that it was thought they could turn out more of these monsters than could be utilized immediately on the great all-big-gun ships then building.

Q.—Where were the big guns to be?

A.—Many miles behind our front lines—so far behind that the men in the trenches could not see them, even with glasses, and could hear their firing only as something far away. From these hidden and distant positions the great shells would pass high over the soldiers' heads, not dropping to earth till they reached the German positions.

Q.—How will American artillery be repaired in France?

A.—A huge artillery base was started early in 1918 to cost approximately 25 million dollars. The works were planned to have a capacity for re-lining more than 800 big guns a month (putting in new bores and rifling to replace the core worn out by firing). There was also to be a works for repairing 50,000 small arms and machine guns a month with a reloading plant to re-load about 100,000 artillery cartridges a day. To do all this (and to make the repairs on motor vehicles and the other equipment), more than a hundred buildings were necessary.

Q.—Has our army done much construction in France?

A.—We made one complete harbor. We have built many railroads. There is a cold storage plant at an American center for 5,000 tons of beef. There is a bakery with a capacity of 500,000 loaves a day. It is as wonderful as a big packing house. Cars of flour run in at a time.

TROOP TRANSPORT OVER SEAS

Q.—Did American troops go to Europe immediately after war was declared?

A.—The first American force was sent within a few months after the American Declaration of War, which was made April 6, 1917.

Q.—Were the first troops sent in warships?

A.—No. They were sent in merchant vessels fitted out as transports, and armed only lightly with a few light, quick-firing naval guns, firing 5- and 6-inch shells.

Q.—How can such transports defend themselves?

A.—They are expected to defend themselves only in a pinch. They are protected by warships.

Q.—Why could not troops be sent in battleships?

A.—Because there is not enough room on warships to carry any considerable number of soldiers. In addition, the function of a warship is to seek for and meet an enemy, whereas the function of a transport is to avoid him.

Q.—How do warships defend transports?

A.—Warships defend transports against the attack of enemy warships by convoying them. To do this, the transports, steaming in line or in double line, are surrounded by cordons of warships of different types.

Far in advance, and sweeping the ocean on both sides, sometimes as far as three hundred miles away, are the swift scout cruisers, whose mission it is to find the enemy and wireless the warning to their own ships.

Surrounding the transports and keeping them always in sight, are the heaviest ships, the battle-cruisers and dreadnaughts. It is their business to meet an attacking foe at such a distance from the transports, that he cannot come within range of them. Forming separate cordons are swift, light cruisers and destroyers—some ranging far over the seas to scout, others staying close to the transports to protect them against destroyer attack, which is particularly to be feared at night.

Q.—Has not the submarine changed the convoy system?

A.—Yes. The fact that the big ships of the German Navy cannot take the sea is what has made cordons of cruisers and battleships unnecessary for our transports. Against submarines alone these big vessels are not needed, and, indeed, would be useless.

As the only menace to our transports comes from submarines, the convoying vessels may consist wholly of destroyers, whose greatest value is their speed. Owing to this speed, a limited number of destroyers can establish a very intensified patrol around quite a large fleet of transports.

As they have speeds ranging from 28 to 36 miles (statute) an hour, it is calculable that a submarine showing its periscope exactly between two destroyers five miles apart, would have both of them down on it in exactly five minutes, if they were thirty-mile boats.

Q.—How can destroyers find submarines?

A.—Only by continual cruising and watching. There are only two factors that are really in the destroyers' favor. One is that the submarine naturally tries to lie on the surface (for resting its men, replenishing its air-supply, and re-charging its electric motors) whenever the commander thinks it safe. The other factor is that a submarine absolutely cannot attack a vessel without, at least, getting a glimpse of it from the surface. That means that the submarine must show its periscope, and, furthermore, must leave a noticeable wake as it moves along close under the surface.

Q.—What is the periscope?

A.—It is, in effect, a great eye at the top of a mast-like tube, about 5 inches in diameter. This eye is a very powerful lens, and when the periscope tube has emerged from the water, the watchers in the still submerged submarine see a reflected image of any vessels within the range of sight. The powerful lens at the top is so made that it gets a maximum amount of view. The observer in

the submarine can turn it in all directions. The most modern submarines have a very wonderful "all-around" periscope, which reflects a view of the whole encircling water-world in all directions. An elaborate system of lenses within the tube reflect this image into the observation room of the submarine.

Q.—Is not the periscope a very small object?

A.—Very small, and its visibility to others varies according to conditions. In a very smooth sea it sometimes shows up with surprising distinctness. In rough water, or when the sun happens to be wrong, it is very hard to see, being only about 5 inches in diameter.

Q.—Is there no other way to detect a submarine?

A.—Yes. When a submerged submarine has come so close to the surface that it can protrude its periscope, it creates a noticeable commotion on the top of the water. The periscope tube in itself makes a wake, and a bigger disturbance still is caused by the movement of the large hull under the surface.

Q.—Can the submarine lie still and await its prey?

A.—No. A submarine that has been brought near the surface to make an attack, cannot lie still in that position. It must keep moving, if it is to retain its level. To lie motionless, a submarine must either come wholly to the surface or it must so fill its ballast tanks as to sink. If a submarine with periscope protruding were to stop its propeller, which, with its balancing fins, keeps it in a desired depth, it would bob up like a cork and be a big mark. A submarine, even when submerged, never has so much water ballast aboard as to destroy its buoyancy. It must retain its tendency to float to the surface, otherwise it would be bound to sink.

Q.—How long is the periscope tube?

A.—From 18 to 20 feet in the average submarine. The submarine thus can sight a ship while it still is that far below the surface.

Q.—Does the submarine sink if its tube is shot away?

A.—No. The only effect is to make it "blind"—that is, without a periscope the crew of the submarine would have to bring their craft to the surface so that they could see through the glass-windowed conning-tower if they wanted to attack ships. But the loss of the periscope does not prevent them from navigating under water and they can, therefore, run away submerged until they get clear of an enemy zone. After that they can run on the surface when no foe is near, and so get home. But they can do no more torpedoing from submerged position. Thus, though they can still manage to get back to port, their capacity for harm would be gone.

Q.—Why not simply shoot away their periscopes and thus make them harmless?

A.—That is one of the various things the submarine-hunters try to do. But it is very difficult. It cannot be done except now and then by lucky chance. The mark is too small. Besides, as we know now, the submarines have mechanics who can make remarkable repairs. Besides, modern submarines have spare periscopes. Every submarine nowadays has at least two, and it is understood that the very latest German submarines have more.

Q.—When the periscope protrudes, will exploding shells sink the submarine?

A.—Twenty feet of water, or much less, make a powerful cushion against explosion. While a good part of the shock is transmitted through the water, a greater part of the explosive violence goes in the lines of least resistance; that is, the air. In addition, there is the immense difficulty of hitting exactly that part of the water under which the submarine is moving. There comes, too, the fact that shells impinge on the sea at an angle, and this makes many of them "ricochet"—that is, they bound, much as a tennis ball does.

Q.—What do the soldiers on a transport do when a torpedo hits?

A.—The soldiers are, of course, drilled every day in putting on the life preservers, and hastening to the lifeboats, which generally hold about 48 men each. Each man goes to a particular boat and sits in a certain seat. The signal to take to the boats is five short blasts on the ship's whistle. Each lifeboat is in command of

an officer, who has a loaded revolver, to make sure of order and absolute silence.

Q.—What happens when the explosive shell strikes the water?

A.—A great deal depends upon the shape of the shell and the angle at which it strikes. The shells in general use have been inclined to bound from the water into the air, especially when the water has been smooth, and the shells struck the water at an angle of less than 10 degrees. Sometimes these shells have traveled for a straight mile after bounding before striking the water again. A shell designed to overcome this tendency, and known as a diving shell, has been devised by American naval engineers.

Q.—How long does it take a ship to make a round-trip to France?

A.—It ought to take big, modern ships, such as the requisitioned German *Vaterland* and others, only about three weeks to take a load of men and supplies to France and get back to an American port. As a matter of fact, however, the congestion is so great that it takes 50 or 60 days to make a round trip. Aside from the frightful congestion which protracts the time for coaling and loading, the faster ships are held down in speed by the necessity of taking the rate of speed on a given trip that the whole convoy must adopt, which is, of course, the speed of the slowest ship in it.

Q.—What is a depth-bomb?

A.—It is the best device so far found for fighting the submarine. Depth-bombs are bombs loaded with 200 or 300 pounds of very high explosive, generally trinitrotoluol. They are carried in a special apparatus at the stern of ships that hunt submarines, and they are so adjusted that they can be dropped into the sea instantly by pulling a lever.

Q.—How are they used?

A.—When a destroyer or other submarine-hunting vessel sights a periscope, it races toward the spot at full speed, generally firing as it goes. While the submarine generally manages to submerge before the patrol-ship can reach it, there is almost always a surface disturbance, due to the motion of the under-water craft. If the patrol vessel can reach the spot in reasonably good time, there is a fair chance to ascertain with some degree of accuracy where the submarine is. The bombs are dropped then, and they explode under water.

Q.—Suppose the depth-bomb does not hit the submarine?

A.—It will explode anyway. Depth-bombs are provided with an appliance that is set to go off automatically at any desired depth. As the force of the explosion under water is enormous, a submarine may be damaged sufficiently to sink it if the bomb explodes anywhere within one hundred feet of it.

Q.—What is a smoke-box?

A.—It is a box pierced with holes and filled with chemicals. When it is desired to screen a vessel from a submarine, the box is thrown overboard. Water rushes in and the chemicals immediately produce a dense smoke, which hides the ship exactly as if it had entered a fog bank.

Q.—Is it true that the British lost hardly any soldiers at sea during the war?

A.—They had astoundingly few losses. At the end of January, 1918, it was announced in England on the authority of a naval authority (un-named) that since the beginning of the war only 9 British transports had been sunk, and that the total loss of life was only 2,000. In that time 11,000,000 soldiers had been transported for greater or shorter distances. The bulk of this huge transportation figure, of course, is produced by the troops that were moved back and forth across the English Channel.

Q.—What does the distress signal S.O.S. mean?

A.—It has no particular origin or meaning, but, being the most easily distinguished combination which can be sent out by the wireless operator—three dots, three dashes, three dots—it was adopted as a distress signal, displacing the former combination of C.Q.D. S.O.S. having been adopted, it was natural that words should be fitted to it, and it is now generally assumed that the signal means "Save our Souls." But it does so no more than O.K. stands for "all correct," as was alleged in an entirely invented anecdote that declared that a Northern General in the Civil War wrote it "Oll Korrect."

MAN UNDER WATER
(The Submarine)

Q.—Who invented the first submarine?

A.—So far as is known the first submarine was built by an American named Bushnell, in 1775. It was a one-man affair, manually propelled, and was just large enough to hold the navigator. It was built of wood, and was submerged by admitting water, which was pumped out when the occupant desired to come to the surface again. The air in the boat would support life for thirty minutes. Bushnell used his boat during the American War of Independence, and tried to attach a bomb to the bottom of the British warship *Eagle*. It, however, failed to explode. Fulton, also an American, and the originator of the steamboat, devoted some time to submarine boats. He used manual propulsion, but, by making use of compressed air, he was able to stay beneath the water for four hours. Directly encouraged by Napoleon, he built a boat for France in 1801.

Q.—Did Americans ever use submarines in war?

A.—Many submarines, all manually propelled, were built during the American Civil War, but Holland, in 1877, was the first to build a really efficient submarine, mechanically propelled. He, too, was an American, so that we can truthfully say that the submarine was an American invention. The French did more to develop the craft than any other people, but the original idea was not theirs. The internal combustion engine made the submarine possible, just as it made possible the aeroplane and Zeppelin.

Q.—How big are English submarines?

A.—The latest pre-war British type, the F class, of which there were eight built, or building, in 1914, has a displacement of 1,200 tons, 5,000 horsepower, a surface speed of 20 knots, and a submerged speed of 12 knots. They have six torpedo tubes, and two quick-firing guns. The AE1 and AE2, which were lost, were 800 tons, and had engines of 1,750 horsepower, which gave them a surface speed of 16 knots. Submerged, they could do 10 knots. They had four torpedo tubes and two quick-firers. They were 176 feet long and 23 feet diameter. The latest French vessels, though smaller than the huge Fs, have almost all eight torpedo tubes. Particulars of the German submarines are not available, but they are, at least, as large and as powerful as our own.

Q.—What crew does a submarine carry?

A.—The original A type carried a crew of eleven. The AE1 carried 35; the Fs have from 40 to 50.

Q.—What is a submarine built of?

A.—She is made of steel. The latest have two skins, as well as watertight compartments. They are fitted with wireless, and are driven, when on the surface, by Diesel engines, using heavy oil.

Q.—What is the motive power when submerged?

A.—Electricity. This means that heavy storage batteries must be carried. Before the Diesel engine was used, submarines had to rely upon internal combustion petrol engines.

Q.—What is the Diesel engine?

A.—It is the most successful type of internal combustion engine using heavy oil. It can be driven with ordinary petroleum, and does not require the highly explosive oils used in motor car and aeroplane engines. The main difference between this engine and other heavy-oil engines which preceded it, is in the fact that no external combustion is applied, and no actual explosion takes place. It has to operate at much higher pressure than any other internal combustion engines, and this caused some alarming accidents in the early days of its use. The present machines are safe and easy to operate. Owing to the perfect combustion of the oil there is hardly any dirt or smell, and very little waste of power. Less than one-half pint of crude oil gives one brake horsepower. It is the invention of a German, Otto Diesel, who committed suicide, under peculiar circumstances, and it has been greatly improved during the war. It is used in the German submarines. Diesels are already consider-

ably used in auxiliary sailing ships, and several very successful Diesel motor ships have made voyages as long as 5,000 miles.

Q.—What is the very latest German submarine like?

A.—Rear-Admiral Degouy, of the French Navy, who is one of the leading naval experts of the world, gave some account of them in the *Revue des Deux Mondes,* published in Paris. He said that there is a submersible armed with a veritable "armored battery," constructed over a nearly cylindrical shell. "This battery, provided with a number (as yet unascertained) of guns of 120—perhaps even of 150—millimeters (5 or 6 in.)—would be flush with the surface of the sea, and the part of the shell unprotected with armor would be covered by the water. All that would be necessary would be to defend that portion of the submarine above the water against the weak guns of merchantmen armed for defense. . . . I shall speak now of the 2,000-ton submarine, which certainly has been put in service, probably at the same time as the commercial submarine *Deutschland,* whose tonnage is no less. Judging from the characteristics which are attributed to this new craft, it will readily be seen that we have here a deep-sea cruiser most acceptable for operating along the Allies' lines of communication with America. These are the details: Length, 85 meters over all; four Diesel motors of 7,000 horsepower; speed of 22 knots (14 when submerged); ability to cover 6,500 sea miles on the surface (in other words, twice the distance across the Atlantic); capacity for fresh water and provisions enough to last six or eight weeks; armament consisting of 8 torpedo tubes for sixteen 55-centimeter torpedoes, 50 automatic mines, 4 medium-sized guns (perhaps of 150 millimeters, perhaps of 120), adapted for firing against aircraft; upper bridge lightly armoured; two boats; fifty men in the crew, together with five officers, including two mechanicians."

Q.—Have we anything like the same number of submarines as Germany?

A.—We have not, and, in this war we do not need them. The German object in submarine warfare is destruction of merchant tonnage, and for this purpose they need as big a fleet of under-water boats as they can possibly turn out. America and the Allies have for their strategic object the destruction of enemy warships and nothing else, because there are no enemy merchant ships on the sea.

Submarines are of only limited value for fighting other submarines, and the work can be done far better by destroyers. Therefore, the American Navy can limit its submarine fleet to the numbers actually desirable for operations against warships. However, we have a decidedly imposing fleet. It numbered more than 75 in 1917 before war began, and it has been heavily increased.

Q.—Have we more than one kind of submarine?

A.—Yes. We have two kinds—the smaller submarine, known as coast defense submarine, and the larger sea-going kind, which is known as fleet submarine, because it is designed to accompany a fleet in sea operations.

Q.—Are any American submarines equal to the biggest German ones?

A.—We have applied the lessons learned during the war, but the details are naturally not things to publish, though most naval students know pretty well what the United States is accomplishing. Before the war began we had already started the construction of many under-water vessels, which were twice the size of anything that ever had existed in American fleets before then.

These big fleet submarines were almost 300 feet long, and they were of 1,000 to 1,200 tons and more, practically equalling in tonnage some of our modern destroyers. They were designed to carry enough fuel (oil) to go from 6,000 to 7,000 miles on the surface and 3,000 miles submerged, with speed close to 20 knots (22½ statute miles) on the surface (by oil-driven motor), and 12 to 14 knots under the surface (by electric motor).

They were armored, carried batteries of at least three 4-inch rifled cannon, and had ten torpedo tubes.

Q.—What was the first submarine exploit of the war?

A.—A German submarine made its way into the sea-region of the Firth of Forth on the Scottish North Sea coast and succeeded in torpedoing and sinking the British light cruiser *Pathfinder.* This was on September 5, 1914, a month and a day after the declaration of war between Great Britain and Germany. The *Pathfinder* was not a large ship, being of only 2,940 tons; therefore, its loss was not im-

portant as importance goes in war. But the demonstration of the actual ability of the submarine to do what it had been designed to do, was of considerable value to the Germans, because it immediately led the British ships to exercise caution that somewhat limited their power for dashing offensives.

Q.—What was the most striking submarine feat?

A.—Probably the most spectacular proof of the fighting powers of the submarine was furnished in the torpedoing of three big British cruisers by one submarine, which attacked and destroyed them in turn.

The British ships were all of the same type—armored cruisers of 12,000 tons each. Their names were *Aboukir, Cressy,* and *Hogue* (names commemorating three famous British victories). They were operating toward the German North Sea base of Kiel on September 22, 1914, when the German U-29 struck one with a torpedo. The others tried to stand by, and were torpedoed in swift succession and sunk.

Q.—Did any British submarines perform notable exploits?

A.—The British submarine E-9 got almost under the guns of Heligoland September 13, 1914, and torpedoed the German light cruiser *Hela* (2,000 tons) practically in the fortress zone. But the most notable exploit (and probably the most brilliant submarine exploit ever performed) was the exploit of the British B-11 which, on December 11, 1914, made its way into the Dardanelles, passing under five rows of mines! This daring submarine deed resulted in the torpedoing of the Turkish battleship *Messoudieh,* 10,000 tons, actually inside of the land and sea defenses of Turkey.

Q.—How many battleships did submarines sink during the war?

A.—Up to the beginning of 1918, the battleships listed as submarine losses were: *Formidable,* 15,000 tons, torpedoed January 1, 1915, in the North Sea; *Goliath,* 13,000 tons, sunk May 12, 1915, Dardanelles; *Triumph,* 12,000 tons, sunk May 25, 1915, in Dardanelles; *Majestic,* 15,000 tons, sunk May 27, 1915, in Dardanelles; *Cornwallis,* 14,000 tons, sunk September 1, 1917, in Mediterranean.

These were the British losses, and do not count in such losses as the *Audacious,* which was sunk mysteriously, but probably not by a submarine.

The French have lost the battleship *Bouvet,* 12,000 tons, sunk March 18, 1915, at the Dardanelles; and the *Suffren,* 13,000 tons, sunk November 26, 1916, off Lisbon.

The Italians lost no battleships by submarine action, though they lost a number of large armored cruisers, as did the French and British. Italian battleship losses were due to explosion and mines.

The Germans have lost an armored cruiser and three light cruisers, all submarined in the Baltic in 1915. The Austrians have, apparently, lost only one cruiser to submarines. The Turks lost the *Messoudieh,* and the battleship *Kyehr-Ed-Din,* torpedoed in the Sea of Marmora Sept. 8, 1915.

Q.—Can submarines fight submarines?

A.—Not as submarines—though it is stated that towards the end of 1917 they were being more and more employed to locate the enemy. They can, of course, fight each other with guns and torpedoes on the surface, but that is only like other craft. Submerged, they cannot fight each other, because the crew of submarines cannot see under water. It is true that the conning-towers have glazed look-out places, but even in clear water the density of the water-world is such that men can see only a few yards. It is conceivable that two submarines might, by guess and luck, blunder into each other, and try to use torpedoes; but it is a remote possibility.

Q.—Are duels under seas likely in the future?

A.—There remains a chance that sound-transmitting apparatus may be so highly perfected that a submarine can find its prey by sound, and succeed in determining its whereabouts even though it remains invisible. In that case, there may some day be under-water hunts by and of submarines.

It is the dream, of course, of naval inventors to discover some way to make fairly extended sight possible under water. This would make the submarine more than doubly as dangerous to surface ships as it now is, for then it might approach a ship without showing its periscope at all. But so far there has been nothing to indicate this possibility.

Q.—Were the American destroyers really effective in the war-zone?

A.—Very effective, but not, as the American people first assumed, through destroying submarines. The effectiveness was by patrol, by covering the war-zone with constantly cruising watching vessels of vast speed, and thus limiting both the time and the radius of action of the submarines sharply.

Q.—Did our destroyers not sink many submarines?

A.—In January, 1918, Commander J. K. Taussig, U. S. Navy, who commanded the first American destroyer squadron that crossed the sea, made a public address in New York, describing the work done by these vessels during seven months of war. The facts that he gave showed that destruction of submarines was only a part of the real task and importance of the anti-submarine patrol. He said that the effective system (1) was a convoying cordon of destroyers to defend the convoyed vessels against such submarines as came to them to attack; and (2) an offensive patrol of destroyers to sweep the seas looking for submarines and attacking them wherever found.

Q.—How about the many reports of destroyed submarines?

A.—Commander Taussig said in reference to this matter:

"I cannot say that we sank many submarines. The submarine, I found, was a very difficult bird to catch. He has tremendous advantage over the surface craft. In the first place, he always sees you first. As he was not after destroyers, he avoided us wherever he could. That is, if he saw a destroyer on the horizon, the submarine always went the other way."

Q.—Did the Commander say that none had been sunk?

A.—He said: "When we saw a submarine, which sometimes happened frequently, and, at other times, might not happen during several weeks, we would immediately go for him full speed, and open fire with our guns in the hope of getting in a shot before he submerged, but he always submerged very quickly. Only once did my vessel, in seven months, actually succeed in firing at a submarine. He then went down after the fifth shot was fired. At that time he was five miles away."

Q.—Is the torpedo the submarine's only weapon?

A.—No. Modern submarines carry guns on deck, which are stowed in watertight depressions when submerged. But against troop transports their only weapon is the torpedo, because, in order to attack a transport by gun-fire, they would have to come to the surface and thus would inevitably be sunk by the convoying vessels.

Q.—Just what is a torpedo? Is it anything like the shell fired from a gun?

A.—The torpedo is a shell and a craft combined—that is, it acts like an explosive shell when it strikes its mark, but, instead of being fired at the mark, it actually propels itself, like a little boat.

Q.—What does it look like?

A.—Like a cigar, if you can imagine a polished steel cigar from eighteen to twenty feet long, and weighing rather more than a ton, the very big ones weighing 3,000 pounds.

Q.—Why is it so long? Does it carry such a huge amount of explosive?

A.—No. It does carry a pretty big load of explosive, but its great length is due to the elaborate machinery that it contains.

Q.—Where does it carry the explosive?

A.—In its pointed steel snout, which is known as the warhead. The full-service torpedo carries 250 pounds of gun-cotton there.

Q.—Where is the machinery?

A.—In its long body behind the explosive. It is a beautifully devised little turbine engine that works with compressed air, and gives the torpedo a speed as high as forty miles an hour so long as the compressed air supply holds out.

Q.—How long a time is that?

A.—Long enough to drive a torpedo through the sea for as much as four miles—quite long enough, therefore, to

hit its mark, for a torpedo generally is fired at a mark very much inside of that distance.

Q.—How is the torpedo fired from the ship?

A.—It is fired, or, rather, propelled from the ship by a blast of compressed air, or a very light powder charge, that does nothing further than to toss it into the sea.

Q.—Does the torpedo always point in the right direction when it strikes the water?

A.—It generally does, but it does not need to. The ingenious machinery within it is so set that it steers the weapon toward the target for which it was adjusted.

Q.—And will it maintain that direction?

A.—Not always. Sometimes a big wave may so strike it that it "deflects," that is, turns aside.

Q.—When a torpedo deflects, what happens?

A.—The torpedo turns back to its original direction automatically, because it is fitted with a gyroscope that keeps it perfectly true or forces it back continually to the original true direction.

Q.—Then the torpedo really is not a projectile at all?

A.—No. It is really a little automatic torpedo boat.

Q.—How does it explode?

A.—It explodes when it hits a ship. There is a firing-pin in its tip, and this detonates a small quantity of fulminate of mercury, one of the most sensitive and violent explosives known. The detonation of this, in turn, explodes the gun-cotton.

Q.—Does the torpedo not have to pierce the ship?

A.—No. It is not powerful enough to do so. It is the explosion of the gun-cotton outside of the ship that blows a hole into it. The water, being non-compressible, forms a solid cushion, and this drives the full force of the explosion against the vessel.

Q.—How did the Germans manage to turn out enough torpedoes?

A.—Their apparent ability to produce all that the U-boats needed was a constant marvel to naval experts of the world, who knew how much extremely fine material is needed for a single one. However, it was known that German submarine commanders were extremely careful to conserve torpedo supply. Extraordinarily strict regulations governed their use. It is understood that every commander had to account in detail for each torpedo, being held strictly accountable for wasted missiles.

Q.—Did the American patrol force them to expend more torpedoes?

A.—If the American patrol did not force them actually to use more torpedoes, it certainly made them waste more, because it forced them to fire a larger number at long range, thus wasting many, because they registered no hits.

Q.—How did the patrols force this condition?

A.—Partly by convoying ships, so that the submarines could not approach within easy torpedoing distance without the imminent risk of having a destroyer on top of them, as their periscopes arose above the surface for a sight at the prey. Partly by so covering the sea in extended patrol that the submarine had few chances to chase ships and destroy them by shell-fire from the surface, because the wireless call for help would bring destroyers to the scene.

Q.—How many torpedoes could German submarines carry?

A.—A minimum of four on the small, old-type submarines. A maximum of twelve on the big super-submarines perfected during the war. The U-53, which visited Newport and then sank Allied ships off Nantucket, carried ten. It was said in 1918 that the Germans had instituted the manufacture of two types of torpedoes—one the full-charge, highly perfected, long-range torpedo, which costs a great deal; the other a greatly cheapened torpedo, which was limited to 500 or 600 yards' range, but was quite effective within that range.

Q.—Was the Deutschland a warship?

A.—No. She was a submarine merchantman, the first one in the world. She

was unarmed. The *Deutschland* was about 300 feet long, and carried a cargo of 800 tons. In 1916 she twice sailed from Germany to the United States and returned. Each crossing of the Atlantic took from 16 to 22 days, and each time she ran the British blockade successfully.

The German cargo consisted chiefly of dyestuffs. The American return cargo was rubber and nickel. No other such vessel ever reached an American port, although the sailing of a companion vessel, the *Bremen*, was reported.

Q.—Do submarines move under water with gasolene power?

A.—No. The gasolene engines can work under water only with great difficulty. Apart from the combustion of the limited supply of air in a submerged submarine, the exhausts cannot operate sufficiently against the great water pressure below the surface. Besides this, the exhaust would send an unceasing stream of bubbles to the surface, and thus betray the exact whereabouts of the submarine to its foes.

Q.—What power do submarines use under water?

A.—Power from electric storage batteries. Whenever the submarine can lie on the surface, its gasolene engines are operated at top speed, to generate electricity for charging these batteries. In dangerous waters this is often done at night. The storage batteries can store enough power so that a submarine can, if necessary, run submerged for about 24 hours without needing to come to the surface. Such long runs, however, are rarely required.

Q.—How does a submarine submerge?

A.—Partly by taking water into its ballast tanks, and partly by diving. It can submerge by taking in water only, but then it simply sinks slowly to an awash condition. It cannot take too much water in, for it would lose its buoyancy and continue to sink till it got to the bottom.

Therefore, as soon as it has enough water-weight on board to bring it awash, the engines are started, and, at the same time, the forward diving-rudders or fins are so set that as the submarine is propelled forward, its bow is forced downward. It is a very delicate operation, for the engines must work with great force, and any undue operation of the diving-rudders may send the vessel down bow first, plunging it to a dangerous depth, and even turning it end over end.

Q.—Can you give a brief summary of submarine warfare questions?

A.—(1) December 24, 1914. Admiral von Tirpitz throws out hints in a newspaper interview of a wholesale torpedoing policy. (2) February 4, 1915. German Government proclaims a war zone about the British Isles, and her intention to sink any enemy merchantmen encountered in this zone without warning. (3) May 1 (dated April 22), 1915. German embassy publishes in New York morning papers warning against taking passage on ships which our government has told the people they had a perfect right to take. The *Lusitania* sailed at 12.20 noon, May 1, and was sunk on May 7. (4) August 19, 1915. Sinking of the *Arabic*, whereupon von Bernstorff gave an oral pledge for his government that hereafter German submarines would not sink "liners" without warning. (5) February, 1916. Germany makes proposals looking toward "assuming liability" for the *Lusitania* victims, but the whole case is complicated again by the "armed ship" issue. (6) March 24, 1916. Sinking of the *Sussex*, passenger vessel, with Americans on board. (7) May 4, 1916. Germany, in response to the threat of the United States Government to break off diplomatic relations with her, gives her "*Sussex* pledge." (8) January 31, 1917. Germany notifies our government that she will begin "unrestricted submarine war" on the following day. (9) February 3, 1917. The President gives Count Bernstorff his passports and recalls Ambassador Gerard from Berlin. (10) April 6, 1917. American declaration of a state of war.

Q.—When was the White Star liner "Arabic" sunk?

A.—She was sunk August 19, 1915, while the general submarine situation was under strenuous discussion between the two governments. There had been, however, a distinct impression that the German Government had already ordered such attacks to cease.

Q.—Did the Germans offer any excuse?

A.—They set up the allegation that the *Arabic* had approached their submarine in such a manner as to indicate to the submarine commander that the

liner intended to ram. The submarine had just sunk another ship, and it was established by both the German and the British evidence that the *Arabic* had undoubtedly approached the submarine.

The *Arabic's* officers, however, swore that they had not done so with any intention of attacking, and the German government finally accepted their testimony and informed the United States that the act of the submarine was "regretted and disavowed," that it was "undertaken against the instructions issued to the commander," and that Germany was prepared to pay an indemnity for the loss of American lives.

Q.—Was there not a further promise?

A.—While the case still was under discussion by the two governments, Count von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador, gave a pledge for his government that "liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning and without safety of the lives of non-combatants, provided that the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance."

Q.—What was the "Ancona" case?

A.—The *Ancona* was an Italian steamship from Genoa, which was shelled and torpedoed in November, 1915. As she had American citizens among her passengers, the United States protested energetically. After some correspondence, the Austrian government announced that it had laid down the rule that "hostile private ships, in so far as they do not flee or offer resistance, may not be destroyed without the persons on board having been placed in safety." The Austrians also agreed to indemnify the American sufferers.

Q.—Have the Germans mine-laying submarines?

A.—They appear to have a large number, and some have been captured. They have specially constructed air-tight chambers into which the mines are placed ready to be sown. These mines are somewhat smaller than those hitherto used, but are deadly nevertheless. When the submarine has reached the desired spot, the chamber is flooded with water and the mines are ejected by mechanical means. The method by which they are anchored to the sea-bottom and then floated to the required height is exceedingly ingenious. According to Italian reports, the Germans have used a very rough sort of submarine for mine-laying in the Adriatic, but those captured by the British are apparently very efficient craft.

Q.—What is a submarine mine?

A.—It is a weapon used principally to defend the approaches to harbors and anchorages. There are two main varieties—those under direct control from the shore, and those not under control. The former are exploded by electricity from a station on land; the latter are mechanical, and explode when struck by a passing vessel.

Q.—How big is a submarine mine?

A.—Submarine mines are usually cylindrical in shape, some four feet in diameter. They are not made larger owing to difficulty of handling, and are quite large enough to contain a charge sufficient to sink great ships.

Q.—Do these mines float about or are they attached?

A.—Most of them are anchored, but floating mines are also sown, and drift about to the danger of all shipping. The anchored ones usually lie some six feet below the surface. Many are made so that when they break away from their moorings they become innocuous. A special contrivance prevents the mine being fired whilst it is being laid; in fact it does not become dangerous for some minutes after it has been put into the sea.

Q.—How can these mines be discovered?

A.—Trawlers are used to discover and catch them. The British make use of the steam drifters (fishermen) of the North Sea for this purpose. The method is for four or five of them to steam abreast, sweeping the sea behind them with long hawsers and grappling apparatus. In this way all the trade routes and channels can be got quickly rid of mines. The trawlers themselves are of light enough draft to pass above them. Special appliances are used for the trawling. The North Sea fishermen know the set of the currents, the channels and shoals, so are obviously the best men to send after mines which drift with the current.

Q.—Did Germany lay mines on the British coast before the declaration of war?

A.—Such an assertion was made at the time, but there was never any proof

forthcoming, and it appears entirely untenable. Ordinary shipping met no mishaps before war was declared. Had mines been about, there would have been many vessels sunk.

Q.—What is a torpedo mine?

A.—It is a contrivance somewhat like a torpedo tube, loaded with a special form of mine, imbedded in the bottom of the channel. No mine sweepers can reach it, for it is buried in the bed itself. It is fired by electricity from the shore when a ship passes over it. This invention is used to defend harbors and straits.

Q.—What German submarine operated off the American coast?

A.—The U-53, a very modern vessel, which made a sudden appearance in Newport harbor, greatly to the excitement of all America. It arrived in the Rhode Island harbor on October 8, 1916, with letters for the German ambassador, and soon put to sea again. The next thing the American public learned was through big headlines saying that the U-53 was sinking ships off Nantucket. Among the five or six vessels sunk was the steamer *Stephano*, which carried American passengers. The passengers and crews of all the vessels were picked up by United States destroyers, and no lives were lost.

The episode, which was an eight-day wonder, and resulted in a temporary tie-up of shipping in eastern ports, started numerous rumors and several legal questions, none of which, however, turned out of material importance, as U-53 vanished as suddenly as it came, and its visit was not succeeded by any others.

Q.—Can a submarine send wireless without high masts?

A.—Yes. Of course the lack of high masts limits its radius, but submarines can do very well, indeed. The German submarines were thoroughly fitted with wireless in the very beginning of the war. Indeed, without wireless they would have been pretty helpless—unable to get in touch with any other submarine and quite unable to learn anything, except what they could see. But, fitted as they were, they could keep themselves and their fellow-raiders so well informed that they managed to warn each other quite successfully of dangers, and they succeeded in operating in unison more or less, besides picking up a good deal of the enemy wireless.

Q.—Did German submarines need no masts at all for wireless?

A.—Oh, yes. They had to have masts, and they had them. The wireless masts were folding or telescopic that could be elevated about twenty feet, and this gave them a radius of from 125 to perhaps 200 miles—the minimum distance being in the day time when conditions were poor, and the maximum being at night when conditions are unusually good. The average wireless range of the early boats probably would be about 150 miles.

Q.—Can German submarines communicate with the German admiralty?

A.—They did so even in the early days when they did not carry wireless as powerful as the equipment in the very new types. When the British battleship *Formidable* was sunk by one of them in the North Sea on New Year's Day, 1915, the German Admiralty gave out the news almost as quickly as it was known to the British Admiralty. The submarine had wirelessed her news into the air, and other German submarines had caught it, and relayed it on and on till it reached one that could, in turn, reach Germany.

Q.—Have the Germans greatly perfected wireless on submarines?

A.—It has been reported, with much circumstantial detail, that the Germans have pitched on a very simple and effective device for elevating the wireless antennae from their submarines to great heights, and thus extending their wireless radius to as much as 1,000 miles. The device is said to be simply a couple of small balloons that are sent up with the wire attached to them. Under favorable conditions they may go as high as 2,000 feet. This method could be used with comparative ease at night when the submarines could venture to lie motionless on the surface.

Q.—How many different ways can a submarine operate?

A.—In four ways: (1) running light, that is, wholly on the surface like any other vessel; (2) awash, that is, just sufficiently sunk to submerge her hull but leave her conning tower and bridge above the surface so that her captain can command her from the surface; (3) surface-submerged, that is, totally under water, but so close to the surface that her crew can see the world through their periscope;

(4) submerged, when the periscope is useless and the navigation must be done entirely by calculation.

Q.—Why does oil on the surface indicate that a submarine has been sunk?

A.—It does not, necessarily. There have been many newspaper statements that a rammed submarine was known to have been destroyed because large patches of oil were seen on the surface after the ramming. As a matter of fact, however, oil rising to the surface simply indicates that there has been an injury to one of the fuel-oil supply tanks, which are situated in the outer skin of German submarines. The actual hull of the submarine is inside of these. A smashed oil-tank would, of course, injure the under-water boat considerably, but it does not destroy her, nor prevent her from voyaging to her base for repairs. A more certain indication of fatal damage to a submarine would be the vast rush of air that must spout from her compressed air-tanks if she is really injured badly. This would mount to the surface in a perfect maelstrom of frothing bubbles.

Q.—How quickly can a submarine's guns be housed?

A.—In from twenty to thirty seconds. The Krupp rapid-fire 3-inch guns with which German submarines are armed, are so mounted that by the pull of a single lever they will turn over backward on an axle and lie snugly upside down in the well, which is then closed with a water-tight, hinged cover. The time for the whole operation is 20 seconds. Some of the very latest types have, in addition to these collapsible guns, smaller deck guns, which do not need housing at all, because they are made of metals impervious to salt-water.

Q.—Can submarines escape a storm by sinking below the surface?

A.—They need only sink about thirty feet to escape nearly every sense of motion from an ordinarily rough surface sea. If the gale is very violent, there may be some motion as far as forty-five feet below the surface, but at fifty feet the water usually is still as death. This is in deep ocean water. In the shallow North Sea and the Baltic, the ground-swells often make a pumping motion that is noticeable forty feet deep, and submarines must be handled cautiously when submerged, for fear of being unexpectedly pounded against the bottom.

Q.—How quickly can a submarine submerge?

A.—A submarine that is cruising awash, and all cleared for quick action, can shut her water-tight hatches and sink out of sight in less than three minutes. In ordinary times, the period that has to elapse between running light on the surface with hatches open and gear exposed, to the moment of total submersion is about eight minutes with ordinary speed of crew-work.

Q.—How deep can a submarine go?

A.—If it were not for water-pressure, a submarine could go to the bottom of the deepest oceanic abyss in the world with absolutely no trouble. But water-pressure is a tremendous thing. At 200 feet the pressure on a man is the same as if he were under a load of 13 tons. To withstand such pressures a submarine must be of extremely strong construction. Any leak, however slight, might fill her with enough water to overcome her reserve buoyancy; and then she would sink rapidly to depths that will simply crush anything made of man. Therefore submarines rarely venture lower than 100 feet, and the usual cruising depth is thirty or fifty feet. American submarines are built by the Navy to withstand test at 200 feet, and they have navigated at greater depths, but only for a "stunt."

Q.—What American submarine was lost by sinking too deep?

A.—The F 4. She was cruising submerged off Honolulu Harbor (Hawaaian Islands), and sank in 250 feet of water. American naval divers performed extraordinary exploits in trying to reach her, and, in the end, despite the terrific water-pressure, succeeded in attaching cables so that she could be raised and dragged ashore. Her entire crew, however, was lost, for she was not raised for many days after the accident.

Q.—How far can a submarine pilot see through the periscope?

A.—On a clear day, with his periscope sticking fifteen feet above the surface, he can see such an object as a battleship five miles away. With the periscope only

just showing above the surface, he can see a ship a little more than a mile away.

Q.—How can a man find his way under water?

A.—The answer is: how does a sailor find his way on top of the water? All he can see is water and sky. The sun will tell him where east, west, north and south are, but that is all. The sailor on the surface steers not by sight (except, of course, to avoid some other ship), but by chart and compass. In fog or black nights his eyes are of no more use than if he were under water. The submarine captain steers similarly—by chart and compass.

Q.—Can a submarine be steered as easily under water as a ship on the surface?

A.—Just as easily. The rudder acts in just the same way. In fact, a ship running on the surface in a sea-way or in a high wind is much harder to steer than a submerged submarine which has no waves to disturb it.

Q.—How does a submarine commander know how deep under water he is?

A.—He simply looks at an indicator, which is worked by water pressure. The pressure of water increases at a certain positive and accurately known ratio with every bit of depth. The submarine commander can tell his depth to the foot —to the inch if he wants to be so accurate.

Q.—Did our destroyers capture any German submarines?

A.—The American destroyers *Fanning* and *Nicholson* sighted a periscope while escorting a convoy. They dropped depth charges where the submarine had submerged, and in a few minutes she came up bow first. For a moment she was down by the stern, but she righted herself and seemed to be speeding up, so the *Fanning* fired three shots at her. The submarine crew then came on deck and held up their hands in token of surrender. The destroyers got a line to her, but she sank in a few minutes. The submarine crew jumped into the water, and was picked up by the destroyers.

MAN IN THE AIR

Q.—Does the term "ace" mean a man or a flying machine?

A.—It means a man—a man nearest to the knight of old wars, who fought battles with other knights while the armies looked on, waiting to see which champion should conquer.

The "ace" is a fighting air-man whose skill and daring make him a veritable champion of the twentieth century war. Mounted in the swiftest machines that science can turn out, the ace flies forth to attack the hostile lines in every way possible. Many times in this war a celebrated ace has fought from two to a dozen hostile machines and has not only escaped, but has actually made havoc among his assailants so that, sometimes, brave as they were, they had to yield to superior skill and resourcefulness, and retired, defeated and baffled, often with a humiliating list of killed.

Q.—Which side has the greatest aces?

A.—The most burning patriotism (and, indeed, even the most jealous partisanship) cannot lay claim to distinct superiority for either side. All but the most blindly partial observers on the Allied or German sides admit that honors are even.

For a long time (and some think even now) the advantage was with the German side in one very important; almost vital, respect. They had the fastest machines that the world ever saw. This gave a naturally dashing ace an immense superiority; and, as a result, the figures of these championship combats indicate that in actual results the German aces have obtained a somewhat better record than their opponents.

In an article printed by the *Outlook* early in 1918 it was stated that the official aviation record shows Germany to be victor in the fight of aces with a score of 1,121 victories won by 66 aces to 1,171 victories won by 125 Allied aces. The author, who says that he is giving all the victories of all the air-forces to December, 1917, ascribes part of the result to the competence of the German air-chief, General von Hoeppner, whom he characterizes as a wonderfully gifted air-expert.

Q.—What are the ruling tactics of German aces?

A.—One of the known reasons for their many successes is that the German air-service has laid down a series of accurate and severe rules that make the German ace not a mere "lone hand," trusting to his own unaided ability. The German air-fighters operate under a system of tactics very much like those that are practiced as a matter of course by all cavalry on earth and by all naval men on the sea. The German ace may venture most daringly to draw pursuit—but behind him is team-work, strong support, and an absolute system of procedure.

He is not permitted to go out for glory. He must go out for tangible success. Just as concealed cavalry waits on land till a flying detachment of its own can draw a too zealous enemy hot after it, or as naval vessels wait in force till a single scout of theirs can draw an enemy squadron into their reach, so the German ace is expected to draw pursuers till his comrades can swoop down in mass formation with vastly superior force.

Q.—Is there a record of the victories won by aces?

A.—Yes. The famous aces of the war were: about 60 French, about 40 British, about 65 German, and about 60 Italian, Belgian, American (with Lafayette Escadrille), Russian, Bulgar and Turks. The Bulgars and the Turks had only one each.

The ten Italians are credited with more than 120 victories, and were said to be all still living at the end of autumn, 1917.

Of the French, about fifteen were killed after winning about 170 victories. Thirty-seven German aces were killed or captured after 589 victories. The one Bulgar was killed after 20 victories. The one Turk was said to be still living in February, 1918, after 8 victories.

The American Lafayette Escadrille record was, as given in the *Outlook*: living, 12 with 35 victories; dead, 3 with 10 victories.

The 33 British aces, of whom 3 are known to have been killed, have 400 victories to their credit. There are more brilliant British airmen than these figures indicate. Great Britain, for some reason, does not make it a regular business to give details.

Q.—Have the Americans a very famous ace?

A.—Yes. One of the most famous was an American, Major Raoul Lufbery, of Wallingford, Conn., who in January, 1918, was commander of the Lafayette Escadrille. His record is exceptional even in this exceptional field, for he had seventeen victories to his credit, having brought down that many German machines. After thirty months' air-service he was still unhurt.

Q.—What was the record of Guynemer, the famous French ace?

A.—Fifty-four aeroplanes put out of commission, 215 combats and two wounds. On one occasion he succeeded in bringing down three enemy aeroplanes in less than an hour. He finally fell himself in a battle with 40 aeroplanes of the enemy after having brought down one of the forty.

Q.—Is there a new German superdreadnaught flying machine?

A.—It has been reported with circumstantial detail that the Germans are building a monster which they call the "Riesen-flugzeug," meaning literally "Giant Flying Apparatus." The details as given are that this monster is a biplane with four engines placed two abreast, one set driving a pusher propeller (in the back) and the other driving a tractor propeller (in front).

The carrying capacity in bombs alone is said to be more than a ton,—three bombs of a thousand pounds each,—enough to wreak terrific destruction.

The biplanes, according to these reports, are to be bombers exclusively, with platforms carrying a sufficiently large crew of machine and rapid-fire gunners to fight off any possible attack.

Q.—Where can the Germans get airship material?

A.—According to a report from Washington (printed with a suggestion that it was official, but not positively saying so) some captured German airplanes had been brought to this country and examined carefully by our experts early in 1918; and this examination showed that the Germans were very hard put to it indeed for material. The most noticeable shortage was in spruce and linen for the wings.

The wing beams, instead of being of solid pieces of the finest and toughest spruce, as is demanded in American specifications, were made of thin pieces jointed with nails and glue. The wings were covered with fiber cloth instead of the thoroughly well-woven linen that is demanded in a perfect machine.

Q.—Is a special bullet used against aeroplanes?

A.—Yes. It is another development of this war. It has been found that the bullet needed against flying craft must be capable of piercing armor in the first place, and that it must have some property that shall cause more damage than a mere hole, which rarely cripples an aeroplane.

The United States Army Ordnance Department has turned out a bullet of the regulation American army rifle caliber that will not only pierce the armor of flying craft, but will produce a flame as it leaves the rifle or machine gun. This flame serves as a "tracer," thus enabling the gunner to gauge his shots and correct his aim till he hits the mark. By day the fiery compound leaves a hanging smoke to serve as "tracer." When the fiery bullet hits, it goes through the armor and sets fire along its whole line of flight. The object particularly is to explode the flying machine's gasoline tanks.

Q.—Did Allied aviators decorate graves of German airmen?

A.—Yes. At the funerals of Boelcke and Immelmann, German military aviators in Belgium, British aviators flew over and dropped wreaths.

It is one cheering fact in the war that the aviators of both sides performed this chivalrous act more than once.

Q.—Does war destroy many aeroplanes?

A.—The French authorities reported in 1917 that in one period of four months they had brought down 73 German machines inside of French lines. They calculated that 188 had gone down behind the German lines, and of these they thought enough had been so badly shattered to justify the claim that at least 231 had been destroyed in those four months.

Q.—How big is the British naval air-service?

A.—It was 700 before the war and by 1918 had increased to 41,000. The *United Service Gazette* (British) said in 1918: "During one month the aircraft patrol around the British coast alone is five times the circumference of the earth.

During September (1917) 64 raids were made on enemy dockyards, etc., and 2,736 bombs were dropped, totaling 85 tons of explosive."

Q.—At the beginning of war, how many aircraft were there?

A.—France had 22 dirigibles and 1,400 aeroplanes; Russia had 18 dirigibles and 800 aeroplanes; Great Britain, 9 dirigibles and 400 aeroplanes; Belgium, 2 dirigibles and 100 aeroplanes; Germany, 40 dirigibles and 1,000 aeroplanes; Austria, 8 dirigibles and 400 aeroplanes; while the United States had only 23 aeroplanes, mostly obsolete.

Q.—What was Germany's air strength later in the war?

A.—It is estimated by the French that the German air fleet at the beginning of 1918 numbered about 300 squadrillas, or a total of 2,500 machines, each squadrilla being comprised of from five to ten machines.

Q.—What is the difference between an airship and an aeroplane?

A.—An airship is lighter than air; that is to say, it mounts because it is filled with a buoyant gas. An aeroplane is heavier than air; it carries no gas to lift it, but mounts by forcing its wings against the air. Consequently it must always keep moving at a fairly high speed.

Q.—What keeps an aeroplane in the air?

A.—Its motion, or speed, developed constantly by an engine. If the engine stops, the forward motion ceases and the aeroplane falls. By volplaning, or coasting, the aviator can often establish a forward-downward course and check the fall.

Q.—Are there many varieties of aeroplanes?

A.—Several; but all are based upon the same type. An Australian (Mr. Hargreaves) may be said to be the man who made the aeroplane possible. He invented the box kite, and an aeroplane is just a box kite, with a powerful engine and propeller that, in a measure, may be said to take the place of the string. Aeroplanes fall into two main classes—monoplanes and biplanes. The former have one plane only, the latter two.

Q.—Has the aeroplane much influence in war?

A.—It has revolutionized warfare, especially by making surprise attacks almost impossible. In maneuvers it has again and again brought opposing forces to an absolute deadlock, and in this war it has enabled both the Allies and the Germans to counter nearly every attack. In the old days, a commander had to rely largely upon his intuition and knowledge of war; he had to risk regiments to ascertain the actual position of his foe, and waste days making feigned attacks all along the line, until he discovered the weak spot. Now the aeroplane scout tells him what he wants to know, often in a few minutes. As Lord French said, we now have to play the game of war with all the cards on the table.

Q.—What is a seaplane?

A.—It is an aeroplane fitted with floats, which enable it to rest on the water. Great Britain has devoted special attention to this type of machine, and has more of them than any other Power. These planes can fly from the deck of a warship. When they return they alight on the water, and are hauled aboard. The Americans have perfected an aerial hydro-aeroplane, a light boat, with wings. The British seaplane is a powerful machine, but it cannot ascend so rapidly, or to such very great heights as the other types of aeroplanes.

Q.—Are there many types of airships?

A.—A good many. The most efficient of all is the Zeppelin. This is what is called the rigid type; somewhat similar is the Suchette Lanz. The Parseval is a semi-rigid airship, used principally for scouting, although it can drop bombs if required. Similar to it are the Astra-Torres, the Clement-Bayard, the Lebaudy, and the Gross. There are also little dirigibles, of the type of the Alpha, Beta and Gamma British army airships, which appear to be of minor use.

Q.—What is the cost of a Zeppelin?

A.—It is not known definitely. Count Zeppelin sold an early one to the German Government for $125,000. Great Britain bought a semi-rigid Astra-Torres, in 1913, for £18,000 ($90,000).

Q.—What is the difference between a Zeppelin and a Parseval?

A.—Put simply, the difference between the two is that the first is a rigid framework of aluminum and light steel, into which a large number of separate gas bags are put. The second is a large gas bag, from which a car is suspended. In the rigid type cabins and platforms are firmly attached to the framework, within which gas bags are stowed; several of the latter might be punctured and lose their gas without the airship falling. In the non-rigid type the car is suspended by wire ropes, and hangs beneath the gas envelope. If this is punctured seriously the whole affair collapses at once.

Q.—Could Zeppelins cross the sea to bomb American cities?

A.—That has been said very often, but it must be remarked that there is a great mass of very powerful technical factors against the assumption. The cruising radius of a Zeppelin is very great, or can be made very great, but a trip across the Atlantic, it must be remembered, also involves a trip back again.

If a great effect were planned, it might be assumed that the Germans would try it, and that possibly they would succeed. But a single raid by a single Zeppelin, even if successful, would not be an effect commensurate with the effort expended. To produce real havoc, a whole fleet would be needed. This would, of course, multiply the risks of the adventure exceedingly and it is hardly possible that the fleet should escape without very severe losses.

The cruising radius of the Zeppelins in service in 1914 was known to be 3,000 miles maximum.

Q.—Could Zeppelins ride out a gale over the Atlantic?

A.—They would not have to do so. They would probably merely need to rise to higher levels in the air until they were above the storm. Storms are all of limited extent—that is, they may seem pretty unlimited to the human beings caught in them, but geographically they rarely cover a very big area; and, as far as height is concerned, they may be very limited indeed. People in mountain country know this. They often find that a climb of much less than a thousand feet will bring them into a dead calm whereas just below them a veritable tempest may be beating the tree-tops.

Q.—What was the reason for the great Zeppelin disaster of 1917?

A.—The Zeppelin fleet which drifted helplessly over France, with the result that a number were brought down, is said to have suffered from frozen engines. The big airships had risen to enormous altitudes to prevent observation or attack by aeroplanes, and the intense cold completely froze up their motors, according to report.

Q.—Did a very large Zeppelin come down in France?

A.—One Zeppelin, L-49, which came down at Dammartin, was fully as long as an average ocean steamship. It measured 643 feet and had about as much "beam" as most ships of that size, for its diameter was about one-sixth of its length, which would make it all of a hundred feet wide at its widest part—truly a monstrous thing to ride the solitudes of air!

It carried a large quantity of fuel oil for its motors, of which there were five, each able to produce 240 horsepower.

Q.—How much gas could the L-49 carry?

A.—According to the French examiners and experts, this type carried 18 gas-bag reservoirs within the metal skeleton of the hull, and the quantity was 55,000 cubic meters of hydrogen gas, enough to lift the twelve-ton ship with all its additional tons of weight in the form of supplies, bombs, etc.

This Zeppelin carried a crew of about 20 men and was armed like a naval vessel, with machine guns and automatic guns for use against aeroplanes, etc.

Q.—Why did the L-49 have five motors?

A.—Two of them were used purely as auxiliary motors, or, rather, as emergency motors. They were rarely operated, but were in effect spare motors in case of accident.

Q.—What is meant by the "roof" of a Zeppelin?

A.—It is technical slang for altitude-rising ability. When an aerial expert says that the "roof" of such and such an airship is 4,000 feet, he means that it can rise 4,000 feet into the air at most.

The "roof" of the original Zeppelins

was probably about a mile. After the war began, we found that Zeppelins had gained ability and could navigate up to 6,000 feet and more. It is said now that the very latest type of this rigid airship can rise and remain under control in heights ranging from 15,000 to 20,000 feet above the surface of the earth.

Q.—Why cannot every airship rise to such heights?

A.—Because of the meteorological conditions. The highly rarefied air at such altitudes makes two immense difficulties: (1) The air being thinner and lighter, the airship (whether gas-lifted or engine-lifted) has far less support than it has in the dense air nearer the surface of earth. In other words, it becomes heavier with every foot of ascension into these rarefied regions of silence. Even the propellers lose thrust heavily. All the conditions are severe. The flying machine labors like the men in it, whose lungs and hearts and blood-vessels are all strained. (2) The immense rarefaction and the intense cold combine to destroy all the equilibrium of the motor, which is an engine built for a certain range of pressures.

Q.—Is the Zeppelin really a failure?

A.—Not by any means. It has proved a failure in that direction which appealed the most to popular imagination—as an offensive dreadnaught of the air, raining destruction down on hostile lines and annihilating armies and their supplies and ordnance. As an offensive force it has failed largely because the aeroplane, with its superior mobility, has proved itself a deadly enemy to it, attacking it in its very vulnerable part—the gas envelope.

But though it is truly a failure as a fighting machine, it has remained as an invaluable war-machine. Only the naval men of Great Britain know how tremendously difficult the Zeppelin fleet of Germany has made their work—not by attacking them, but by watching day and night, cruising high beyond reach and spying out every corner of sea. The German Navy has been at least doubly secure because of the endless watch and ward by its Zeppelins—a guard that motor-lifted aeroplanes could not possibly maintain with such utter perfection.

Q.—Why has there been so little progress in developing the dirigible airship?

A.—The chief difficulty—that of overcoming the effect of varying temperatures—remained long unsolved. The rays of the sun, appearing suddenly on a cloudy day or growing warmer with the approach of noon, would expand the gas, send the airship to higher altitudes, and possibly burst the bag. Disappearance of the sun or the approach of night would contract the gas and cause the airship to descend.

Q.—How did Count Zeppelin succeed where other airship inventors failed?

A.—He covered his gas bag (or bags, there being as many as eighteen in later models) with an outer envelope held rigid by a framework of aluminum, thus keeping the sun's rays from the gas bag.

Q.—Where does the crew of a Zeppelin sleep?

A.—Within the framework is a long passageway for the crew, a mere boardwalk nine inches wide composed of wooden slats separated one from another by several inches. Along this passageway hangs a series of hammocks. This is where the crew is quartered.

Q.—What color is a Zeppelin?

A.—The under half is painted a coal black to make it invisible at night, the upper surface of the hull is painted white and gray to make it blend with a cloud so as to make it difficult to be seen from an aeroplane.

Q.—What is the speed of a Zeppelin?

A.—The speed of the present Zeppelin is never less than 60 miles an hour and may be developed as high as 100 miles an hour. Speed saves the Zeppelin from destruction in a gale. Speed has been obtained by trebling the size of a Zeppelin and by applying the lessons learned in developing the 130-mile-an-hour fighting aeroplane.

Q.—When was the first Zeppelin raid made over England?

A.—Zeppelins flew over the British Isles for the first time on January 19, 1915. Nine bombs were thrown at Yarmouth and nine persons were killed. The result of the raid was an immediate increase in voluntary recruiting. London was first bombed by Zeppelins on May 31, 1915, and six people killed. From the date of the first raid to the middle of March, 1917, about forty Zeppelin raids were made upon England.

Q.—Has America developed a standard motor?

A.—Yes. It is known as the "Liberty Engine." The building of this engine was no inventing job. It was built to be standardized, and was a combination of all approved things. It was made so that it may be assembled anywhere and so that each part of one engine is interchangeable with each similar part of any other engine.

The ordinary automobile engine does not run wide open at full speed more than 10 to 15 per cent of its life. The Liberty engine must run at full speed, wide open, all the time. It was designed so that there shall be a minimum of waste and of supplies needed, with a maximum of efficiency.

Q.—What is the horsepower of the Liberty motor?

A.—The Liberty motor develops 400 horsepower at 1,625 revolutions on a total weight of only 800 pounds, less than 2 pounds for each produced horsepower. This is an exceedingly excellent showing as the celebrated British Rolls-Royce, which weighs 950 pounds, has never developed more than 360 horsepower.

Q.—What is the life of an aeroplane engine?

A.—Experts say that it is rarely more than 100 hours. That is, it is necessary to substitute some new part after the engine has been running at full speed for 100 hours.

An idea of the complicated mechanism of the aeroplane may be gained by knowing that there are 921 steel stampings, 798 forgings cast, and 276 turn-buckles in a single machine. In a single battle-plane there are 23,000 screws. Seventy per cent of spare parts must be kept on hand for every battle-plane.

Q.—Has the war evolved a distinct type of aeroplane?

A.—The biplane has become almost supreme. The birdlike monoplane has practically disappeared. More general use of the triplane is a possible development of the near future. Improvements are constant, and new models soon become out of date. Aeroplanes are so frequently brought down within the opposing lines that secrets in construction are few. Improvements are in the line of speed and responsiveness, rather than mechanical safety, for the greatest danger is from enemy aviators.

Q.—What are the principal aeroplane models in general use?

A.—(1) The one-seated fighter, carrying a fixed machine gun in front of the aviator and a pivotal machine gun slightly above him. (2) The two-passenger reconnaissance or "general purpose" machine, with pilot and gunner or observer. (3) The large, twin-engine bombing machine, carrying three or more men.

Q.—How many types of aeroplanes are used in the American army?

A.—Aeroplane needs for war purposes may be divided thus, as experience has shown: First, training machines; second, advanced training machines; third, battle-planes; and fourth, heavy bombing planes.

The training machines, for the purpose of aviators, are low-powered machines—that is, the engines are of from one hundred to one hundred and twenty-five horsepower; the machines are smaller than the battle-planes and more agile—especially the advanced training types. The men learn on these. These machines do not use Liberty engines. At present a four- and an eight-cylinder engine is being installed in them, which answers every requirement.

Q.—How can a photograph from an aeroplane make a picture that anybody can understand?

A.—It doesn't. Very few persons can understand it. Aerial military photography has introduced a class of specialists in "reading" these photographs. To the ordinary human being they might be as meaningless as a picture puzzle. There are hundreds of tiny characters in a military aero-photograph that look utterly unimportant to the ordinary person, but that indicate such vastly important things as bomb-proofs, guns, ammunition mounds, etc., to the expert.

Q.—What type of camera is used for photographing from aeroplanes?

A.—The photographic aeroplane merely ascends to a given point, when, by pressing a button or pulling a string, the camera is set in action automatically. Some photographic planes carry several cameras attached in such positions that several groups of pictures may be taken at once. The exhaust from the motor sometimes is used to operate cameras that take rapid successive pictures. Photographs

that are perfectly clear have been taken from a height of three and a half miles. By means of color and light filtration, certain things, often invisible to the eye, are made to stand out sharply in photographs of one especial kind.

The aviator-observer may not be able to see such objects as men lying still upon the ground, wrapped in camouflage coats, but, by means of light filtration, the camera sharply reveals them.

Q.—How are aeroplanes able to fly at night?

A.—Navigation lights affixed to the edge of the lower plane and under control of the pilot are used for flying at night. The lights are also invaluable in squadron formation as a guide to other machines in the group. German air raiders use variegated lights for signaling between different units.

Q.—How can an aeroplane effect a safe landing at night?

A.—This is one of the greatest problems an aviator has to solve, and in the early days of the war many disasters overtook the men who went up at night, owing to the bad landings. It is said that the Germans solved the problem in an ingenious manner. A pit was dug in the center of the aerodrome and covered over with a thick sheet of glass to withstand the weight of an aeroplane, should its wheels pass over it. A powerful white light was placed in the pit.

At a distance of about 250 feet from this light, and also sunk in the ground, were placed four red lights arranged in relation to the cardinal points of the compass. Each of these red lights was connected by underground wires to a wind-vane, mounted on a mast or tower at some convenient point.

At night the central light glowed constantly, while the only red light that showed was the one in the direction of the wind that happened to be blowing, thus indicating to the pilot the wind conditions where the landing was to be made.

Aviators landing in unlighted zones at night undertake excessive risks. Aeroplane pilots often drop flare-lights to illuminate the ground on which they want to descend. Night flying is avoided as much as possible by all the belligerents.

Q.—What are anti-aircraft guns?

A.—They are guns so mounted that they may be pointed upward to deliver direct fire against objects in the sky. In the first stages of the great war they were very simple, often being merely improvised. After a period of experience, they became more and more specialized, until they acquired a distinct status of their own, being fitted with unique appliances and firing ammunition quite different from that of other guns.

Q.—What is the distinctive ammunition?

A.—Shrapnel-shells that can ascend to great heights, with smoke-appliances so that the gunners could note exactly where the shells exploded, and thus correct their aim continually.

Q.—Were these guns successful?

A.—They were extremely successful in forcing aircraft to fly high and avoid zones of aircraft fire. They did not destroy aircraft nearly so well. The best enemy of aircraft proved to be other aircraft.

Q.—Did anti-aircraft guns not destroy many flying machines?

A.—They certainly destroyed a number. But it has been estimated by experts at the front that an average of 6,000 shots has to be expended for each aircraft brought down.

Q.—How do gunners find the range of an aeroplane?

A.—With an instrument called a telemeter. It gives the exact altitude of the aircraft, and is as simple as it is ingenious. There are two apertures—one for each eye. In one the aircraft is seen right side up; in the other it is inverted. By turning a thumbscrew the two images are brought together. When one is superimposed exactly over the other the altitude is shown in meters, or feet, on a dial.

Q.—Is the aviation service not the most dangerous of any in this war?

A.—It was so considered when the war began. It seems likely, too, that in the first months the mortality among aviators was enormous. But after a few years, greatly to the surprise of military men, the aviators had developed such science and skill that instead of being the most dangerous, aviation actually had become the least dangerous service in the war.

Q.—Does this mean that few aviators are killed?

A.—No. It means only that in proportion to the numbers engaged in the work, the losses are small. In percentages, infantry suffers the most casualties (just as it always has done in every war). Artillery comes next in percentage of casualty; the medical corps comes third and aviation comes fourth.

This fact has now been so well established that early in 1918 General Pershing, commander of the American expeditionary force in France, recommended that the extra pay for aviators, based on the theory of extra-hazardous service, be discontinued.

Q.—Has anything new happened to make the aviator safe?

A.—No, nothing new, unless we can call vastly increased skill and science new. The aviators have learned how to beat the anti-aircraft gun, for one thing. For purposes of destroying aeroplanes, all guns so far devised have been comparative failures. They are immensely useful for forcing aircraft to fly high and thus they hamper them in observation and bomb-dropping; but as instruments of damage they have not proved themselves.

Thus the only dangerous opponent that the aeroplane has to-day in war is another aeroplane. But, except for the extraordinary exploits of extraordinary individuals, and for the distinct fighting clan of the service, the average army aviator's chief business is not to fight but to scout. Therefore, though there are very many fierce combats in the air, almost daily, the regular daily work of aviation is not combative.

Q.—Are there different branches of military aviation service?

A.—There are four large general services nowadays in military aviation—exploration, observation, bombardment and combat. There are aeroplanes whose sole duty is to observe, others who protect the observer from hostile attacks, others who are bombarders, etc. The Lafayette Escadrille, for example, was mainly a bombardment fleet, dropping bombs upon the enemy's munition depots and railway lines before an attack.

Q.—How fast does a fighting aeroplane fly?

A.—The swift single-seat fighting machines of the Allies at present are flying from 125 to 140 miles an hour. Each is armed with one or two machine guns, rigidly fastened to the aeroplane, and capable of shooting only in the direction of the axis of the machine.

Q.—How does a fighter attack?

A.—One of the common maneuvers consists of diving from a sufficient distance to about 300 feet behind the adversary; dropping about 60 feet lower, and coming into position for firing by an upward dash. If the enemy has suspected nothing, it is sure death for him.

Q.—Why do the Allies not send aeroplanes over Essen to destroy Krupps?

A.—Presumably they have tried, and, presumably, Krupps is too well guarded. In view of the fact that this is a war of munitions rather than of men, it is, indeed, amazing that far more determined efforts have not been made to cripple Germany by destroying Krupps. It must be noted, however, that Germany has been equally unsuccessful in destroying the munitions works of the Allies.

Q.—Why do not the Allies resort to reprisals upon German cities?

A.—There is much opposition to reprisals in the Allied countries. Moreover, it is much more difficult for the Allies to bomb German cities than it is for the Germans to bomb England, because traveling the same distance which the Germans travel from their submarine base in Belgium to England would bring the Allies' aviators only as far as Belgium or northern France. They have, however, dropped bombs upon Dresden and Frankfort with far-reaching effect, both in the destruction of property and the moral effect upon the people.

Q.—Are bombs aimed, or merely dropped, from aircraft?

A.—Much progress has been made in bomb-sighting. The chief difficulty is to establish a true vertical direction. Modern bomb-dropping machines are equipped with instruments not only for sighting, but for determining allowances necessary for speed, height, wind, and so forth.

Q.—How much bombing material can a Zeppelin carry?

A.—The Zeppelin captured by the French had provision for eighteen 120-

lb. bombs—more than a ton. When a greater bomb-load is carried (often as much as four tons), fuel-load is sacrificed and safety impaired.

Q.—How can aviators safely have glass windows and goggles?

A.—In order to keep fragments of glass from injuring the pilot in case of accident, triplex glass is used for windows and goggles. In a recent accident where an aeroplane, going ninety miles an hour, struck a tree, the triplex glass window did not throw off a single fragment.

Q.—What changes did 1917 bring in aeroplanes?

A.—The most important change is the growth in size. Even the single-seater fast fighting machines are being built larger to accommodate a larger engine with water-cooling apparatus, which also necessitates a greater wing area in order that the machine may be slowed up enough for safe landing. The fighting aeroplanes are beginning to have two machine guns timed to fire between the propeller blades, and other guns to be fired at various angles. The slower reconnaissance type has also increased its engine power. The twin-engine machine is more and more used. Both the Germans and the Allies have the pilot in the front cockpit handling one or two synchronized guns, with a gunner placed in the after-seat managing a gun on a turn-table.

Q.—Do aeroplane guns really fire through the propeller?

A.—Yes. The gun is regulated by a wonderfully ingenious yet simple apparatus that times its shots so exactly that each bullet will surely pass between the blades of the propeller, though the latter is whirling as swiftly as it can go.

Q.—What is the height record for an aeroplane?

A.—In 1918 Lieutenant Papa, of the Italian Army, reached an altitude of 23,200 feet in a flight lasting one hour and five minutes. A passenger accompanied the operator. He was prevented from attaining a still higher altitude only by a lack of oxygen. The same pilot broke the record in May, 1917, with a flight attaining 21,000 feet.

Q.—Why has Paris been so little attacked by air-raiders?

A.—Many various explanations have been given by speculatively inclined minds. One explanation was that the French country around the capital, and the capital itself, were so well defended that an attack on Paris was more hazardous than the trip across the Channel or the North Sea. This explanation, however, was rather weakened when the Germans made a raid on Paris, January 30, 1918, with four air-squadrons, according to French reports, which dropped, according to the German reports, fourteen tons of bombs. The German report added that the raid was in reprisal for the air raids over German cities, which had been conducted a short time before by French and British fliers, and, according to some American newspapers, by some American fliers. Thus this raid appeared to indicate that the Germans could raid Paris when they so determined. This gave some strength to the previously offered suggestion that the Germans refrained from raids on Paris as a matter of political policy.

Q.—What is a kite balloon and what is it used for?

A.—Kite balloons are large balloons controlled from the ground by ropes. They are used for observation purposes on the fighting fronts, and by the Allied navies in detecting U-boats. The balloon is attached to the deck of a trawler, and the observer, in his basket, can easily spot a submarine even when it is below the surface of the water.

Q.—Have airplanes ever made use of smoke devices?

A.—Yes. The big German Gotha aeroplanes, which raid England from time to time, are equipped with apparatus for producing smoke clouds, which are emitted whenever the raiders are seriously threatened by anti-aircraft artillery. As the smoke is white and practically of the same formation as the clouds overhead, it is a hard matter for the gunners below to find the machines.

Q.—Where did the aeroplane first prove its effectiveness?

A.—First mention is made by Sir John French at the Aisne, in a report to the War Office in the first week of September, 1914. He says, "Sir David Henderson and the Royal Flying Corps have proved their incalculable value."

Q.—What is the status of airmen caught while dropping printed propaganda?

A.—There is no specific rule in international law or the rules of war to govern

the case exactly. The circulation of propaganda in enemy lines by air-route is entirely new. In previous wars there was the same effort to circulate propaganda among enemy soldiers and population, but it was attended with such difficulty that it did not reach great magnitude.

Q.—What was done in previous wars to men caught circulating such matter?

A.—Usually the case was simple, because the men who tried to spread it had to enter enemy lines in disguise, and thus were subject to execution as spies. If, however, a soldier should have stolen into enemy lines in his uniform with such propaganda, it might fairly be claimed that he should be treated like a soldier attacking an enemy line with weapons. But, presumably, his captors would not willingly take that view of it.

Q.—Why is castor oil important to the success of aviation?

A.—It has been found to be the only practical lubricant, and it was necessary for the United States to bring a cargo of castor beans all the way from Bombay, India, to speed up the industry of producing castor oil in sufficient quantities to carry out the big aviation program.

Q.—Did the Kaiser have a narrow escape from a bomb from an aeroplane?

A.—Yes. While the Kaiser was watching the assault on Ypres from Thielt in Belgium, a British aeroplane dropped a bomb near his position, killing several members of his staff. There was no knowledge of his presence there on the part of the aviator.

Q.—How does an aeroplane rise from a ship's deck?

A.—Aeroplane-carrying warships are provided with a skid-way built as a superstructure over the decks and arranged in such a way that it does not interfere with the guns. Usually it is astern. The most modern type of airship-carrying vessel in our navy is thus designed.

The aeroplane is lifted to the skidway, where it rests on a sliding platform or sledge. The naval aeroplane, being a hydro-aeroplane, is practically a flying boat, and, therefore, has no wheels with which it may start itself from the surface. Besides, the size of a ship is not sufficient to give a good start. Therefore, instead of projecting itself forward with its own engine power, as the land-plane does, the naval plane is shot from the ship by a catapult, which sends the sledge whizzing into the air with the plane on it. As the flying machine rises, the platform falls into the sea, to be picked up by the sailors.

Q.—How does a naval plane return to the ship? Can it land on deck?

A.—No. It returns as near to the ship as possible, and then glides to the water, where it floats on its pontoons or boats. Then it motors on the surface to the side of the ship. Tackles and purchases are lowered with sailors, who fasten the plane into a sling and the whole apparatus, aviators and all, is hoisted aboard and swung where it belongs.

Q.—What is the reason for the shortage of spruce lumber?

A.—Spruce has been found to be the only lumber with sufficient strength and lightness for aeroplanes. Uncle Sam has found it necessary to take over the entire spruce output and has been obliged to go into the forests himself with lumber squadrons of many thousand men to get out sufficient trees to build the thousands of aeroplanes now needed for the Western front.

Q.—Is there no substitute for spruce?

A.—Up to this time no satisfactory substitute has been secured for spruce wood for the frames of the fuselage, the wings, the struts, and so on. It answers the purpose better than any other, resists shocks with greater strength, has a greater all-round capability than any other wood or metal that has as yet been tried.

Q.—What responsible agency has the American Government for aeroplane production?

A.—The Aircraft Production Board, headed by Howard E. Coffin, a part of the Council of National Defense. This board works in consultation with the Army and Navy Boards on designs and specifications. Its chief function is to produce a maximum output of types desired by the government. It also equips with machines the government schools and the training fields, which educate 6,000 aviators a year.

Q.—Could the Germans send aeroplanes from submarines to bomb the United States?

A.—No attempt, apparently, has been made by the enemy to combine air-raids with the submarine. An aeroplane which might be used by the Germans for this purpose is the "Brandenburg tractor biplane," a standard seaplane, built according to special German plans.

Q.—Is there much bombing from the air?

A.—The British War Office reported that in January, 1918, the Germans dropped 1,482 bombs in the area occupied by British troops in France. In the same period British aviators dropped 7,653 bombs in the enemy areas. The Germans dropped only 221 bombs in the daytime, while the British dropped 5,900 between sunrise and sunset.

OUR NAVY

Q.—How many ships are in the American Navy?

A.—We had more than one thousand within seven months after America declared war. This was an expansion from a navy of 300 vessels, which we had in 1916. Of course we reckon in every type of ship in this aggregate, from the super-dreadnaught type to the submarine chasers and scouting craft.

The vessels under construction at the end of 1917 were 800 in number, of which 425 were large craft (ranging from all-big-gun ships to destroyers) and 350 were fast types of submarine chasers.

Q.—How many men had the Navy before the war?

A.—On the day when war was declared there were 64,680 enlisted men in the Navy; in March, 1918, there were 150,000, the total number authorized being 165,000.

In addition there were more than 49,000 enlisted men in the Naval Reserve force, 7,000 in the Hospital Corps, 16,000 naval volunteers, and about 5,000 members of the coast guard in service—a total of about 225,000 men.

The Marine Corps has been more than doubled, there being about 33,000 men and officers in service, as compared with 13,266 enlisted men and 426 commissioned officers in April, 1917.

Q.—What was our naval rank in 1914?

A.—Third among the great Powers in all-big-gun ships. The navies stood: Great Britain, Germany, United States, France, Japan, Russia, Italy, Austria, Spain, Brazil, Argentine, Chile.

Q.—Did we compare at all in 1914 with Germany in big ships?

A.—Our Navy, on July 1, 1914, included these completed ships in service: Eight dreadnaught battleships, 22 predreadnaughts, 25 cruisers, 51 torpedo-boat destroyers, 13 torpedo boats, and 30 submarines. We had at that date a naval strength of 66,273 officers and enlisted men.

At the outbreak of war the German fleet had 28 dreadnaughts built and building, 20 older battleships, 55 cruisers, 154 torpedo craft, and 45 submarines.

Q.—Were we very inferior navally to England and Germany?

A.—Decidedly so. In warship tonnage we stood as follows:

Great Britain	2,158,256
Germany	951,713
United States	774,353
France	665,748
Japan	519,640
Italy	285,460
Russia	270,861
Austria-Hungary	221,526

Q.—How many German dreadnaughts were actually afloat in 1914?

A.—It is hard to say exactly, because there is always some uncertainty about ships actually afloat and ships nearing completion. Sometimes naval estimates carry all ships (completed, partly completed and even contemplated) to show full strength. At other times, to conceal full strength, they show only the ships actually afloat and even of these they show only the undoubtedly first-class ones, relegating older ones to a second line. An apparently conservative list indicates that when war was declared Germany had at least 16 undoubtedly first-class dreadnaughts and battleships afloat and enough others building, or appropriated for, to make a total of 28, of which some very certainly were due soon to be launched. All these 28 were not, however, "all-big-gun" ships.

Q.—How did the various Powers compare in big-gun ships in 1914?

A.—In big-gun ships Great Britain, according to the U. S. Navy Department, Office of Naval Intelligence, had in the end of the year 1913, 18 all-big-gun dreadnaughts alone, with 14 building. Germany had 13 with 6 building. France had 2 with 9 building. Japan had 2 with 4 building. Italy had 2 with 7 building. Austria had 2 with 2 building.

Q.—What are all-big-gun ships?

A.—They are the very last thing in naval construction, being ships whose turrets are loaded to the limit of possibility with the largest rifled steel cannon ever

made. The battleships of the past had various "batteries" of guns with many calibers. The "all-big-gun" ship is designed to do its smashing with a huge, swift discharge of projectiles of one size —the heaviest projectile ever used either on land or sea.

Q.—How do the belligerents compare in battle-cruisers?

A.—We know only how they did compare before the war. In the beginning of 1914 they stood as follows: Great Britain 9 and 1 building, Germany 4 and 3 building, Russia none and 4 building, Japan 1 and 3 building, and Italy and Austria none and none building.

Q.—How many ships did Japan have when war began?

A.—Our Office of Naval Intelligence stated, December, 1913, that Japan then had actually afloat 2 first-class all-big-gun dreadnaughts, 13 battleships of about 10,000 tons each, 1 battle cruiser, 13 armored cruisers, 14 other cruisers, 54 destroyers, 28 torpedo boats and 13 submarines.

Q.—Has the American Navy any dreadnaughts?

A.—We have many ships of the dreadnaught and, indeed, super-dreadnaught class; but the term is not used in our navy. These monster ships are called "battleships of the first line" by the Navy Department, and the favorite American naval name for them is All-Big-Gun Ships.

Q.—What system is used in naming American warships?

A.—A very simple one, easy to remember, and having the further virtue that whoever learns the principle can ever afterward identify the type (kind) of each American war-vessel as soon as the name is given.

All armored ships (which means battleships and armored cruisers) are named after States. Cruisers are named after cities, with the general rule obtaining that a cruiser of the first class shall be named for a city of the first class, etc. Gunboats are named after smaller cities.

Destroyers bear the names of naval officers who have won some historic distinction. Submarines are known merely by a letter with a number after it denoting their place in the class shown by the letter (as A-2).

Fuel ships and colliers bear the names of Greek and Roman deities and heroes, such as *Jupiter, Cyclops, Vulcan,* etc. Supply ships bear such names as *Supply, Glacier,* etc.

There are some exceptions in each type to the rule given here. Thus, one American ship in the battleship line bears and probably always will bear the name *Kearsarge,* to commemorate the famous steam frigate that sank the equally famous Confederate *Alabama,* off Cherbourg, France, at the end of the Civil War.

Q.—How many States are represented by armored ships bearing their names?

A.—Every State in the Union is represented by a battleship of the first line, a battleship of the second line, or an armored cruiser. That makes 48 capital ships named after States. But in 1916 our line of armored big ships afloat, designed, under construction, or ready to launch had grown so that we had 52 of them planned, 4 more than we had States. This overflow bears the names of four cities.

Q.—What system does the British Navy use for naming ships?

A.—A leading principle in British naval nomenclature is to immortalize the names of famous British war-vessels. Thus there always is some capital ship in the British Navy bearing the name *Revenge,* after Sir Richard Grenville's famous ship that fought the Spanish fleet, as immortalized in Tennyson's poem. Such names as *Agamemnon, Vanguard, Warspite,* etc., are examples of this system.

There also are names of enemy ships captured in illustrious actions. This explains why some British vessels today bear French names. There is, however, no deliberate system that controls the naming of British ships throughout. Some bear the names of British Kings and Queens, others have merely characteristic names, such as *Formidable, Terrible, Lion,* etc.

Q.—Do the Germans name ships for their naval heroes?

A.—The Germans have had very little naval history. Therefore only a few of their warships bear names connected with sea-actions or sea-history.

Their ships are named partly after German States or cities (*Pommern, Leipzic,* etc.), partly for sovereigns, and partly for

famous generals (*Lutzow, Scharnhorst, Bluecher,* etc.). Other ships are named for animals and sea-birds, like some British ships.

Q.—When was the first American gun fired in the war?

A.—The first American gun of the war was fired April 19, 1917, from the steamship *Mongolia* at the periscope of a German submarine. The *Mongolia* was commanded by Captain Rice, who thought at the time that the hostile craft had been sunk. It was later reported that the periscope had been smashed and the commander killed but that the submarine had not been sunk.

Q.—What was the first American force in actual war service?

A.—A flotilla of American U-boat destroyers under Admiral William S. Sims arrived at Queenstown May 4, 1917, and went into immediate service.

Q.—Who is the ranking officer of the American Navy?

A.—Admiral W. S. Benson, Chief of Naval Operations. Next in rank is Admiral Mayo, Commander-in-Chief of the United States Atlantic Fleet.

Q.—What is the difference between dreadnaughts and old-time battleships?

A.—The old-time battleship, which was considered the most tremendous thing afloat only ten years before the war, would hardly rank as a "cruiser" now against a modern American battleship of the first line (or dreadnaught).

Where the old-time American battleship carried only four great guns, the modern dreadnaught type carries from eight to twelve. Where the old-time battleship's great guns were twelve-inch diameter in the bore, the modern dreadnaught carries guns that are 14 and 16 inches.

Dreadnaughts also are immensely superior in speed. The dreadnaught type has not less than 21 knots speed—that is, 24 land-miles an hour. The old-time battleship did not exceed 18 knots at its best. In addition, the armor of a dreadnaught is thousands of tons heavier than that of the old battleship type.

Q.—Do our dreadnaughts carry as big guns as British ships?

A.—The very latest dreadnaught type of our ships—the all-big-gun ship, as American naval experts prefer to call it—will carry the largest naval guns afloat, for they will have 16-inch guns mounted three in a turret. The navy is building a gun now of the same diameter but of still greater length and powder-chamber capacity. Armed with a main battery consisting entirely of these guns—from eight to twelve to a single ship—our American big-gun ships will actually be armed more tremendously than our big coast fortifications were ten years ago.

Q.—Is the battle-cruiser a battleship or is it a new kind of vessel?

A.—It is a very new type of vessel, produced by the efforts of naval constructors to design a kind of ship that should be mighty enough to fight every vessel except a dreadnaught, and at the same time be so swift that it could escape from dreadnaughts. The result has been something that most naval constructors hardly expected—a ship that is a distinct hybrid type. It is neither dreadnaught nor cruiser, yet it has something of both.

Q.—Is it heavily armed?

A.—It carries guns so huge that a few years ago no constructor would have dared to suggest mounting them even on battleships. Its speed is so great that it actually is greater than that of the swift little torpedo destroyers of a few years ago, and yet, despite this speed, it is simply monstrous with armor-belting—so much so that it has turned out that a battle-cruiser, while inferior to a dreadnaught, has some possible chance of fighting off a dreadnaught in any running fight that gives the battle-cruiser searoom enough to choose and maintain its distance.

This does not mean, however, that a battle-cruiser commander will deliberately undertake to fight a first-class dreadnaught. The battle-cruiser's business is to avoid dreadnaughts and smash everything else.

Q.—Are there any battle-cruisers in the American Navy?

A.—Yes. During 1914 and 1915 American naval experts were doubtful about the value of the type, and leaned to the belief that dreadnaughts probably would be the

best part of a big navy. This belief in the superiority of dreadnaughts remains justified, but the naval operations in the North Sea have demonstrated the immense value of heavy ships with vast speeds in addition.

We are now building battle-cruisers with speeds of 35 knots—40.3 statute or land miles an hour! These battle-cruisers are at least 14 knots (16 miles) faster than our best battleships—which means that if a battle-cruiser and a dreadnaught were to begin a fight at maximum gun-range apart, the battle-cruiser could run completely out of gun-range in less than two minutes.

Q.—What were the expert criticisms of the battle-cruiser type?

A.—The chief criticism was that they were heavier than was necessary against inferior ships (armored cruisers, etc.), and yet so inferior to dreadnaughts that they represented wasted power. Technically, this criticism was sound, but it "stacked up" against the actual fact that the two big belligerents (Germany and Great Britain) did use battle-cruisers, and that, therefore, any navy that wanted to maintain its rank had also to produce battle-cruisers. Furthermore, the big feature of the battle-cruiser—speed—has proved in fleet actions to be something of enormous importance, almost ranking with gun-fire itself as an actual part of combat.

Q.—How do our battle-cruisers compare with the foreign ones?

A.—The latest type of American battle-cruiser, on which construction is being hurried now, is a ship of 35,000 tons with 35 knots speed. This type, of which six are to be set afloat, is 5,000 tons heavier and 13 knots faster than the *Tiger* type of Great Britain, which was recognized as the biggest battle-cruiser afloat in 1914 and 1915.

It is, also, larger and faster than the *Queen Elizabeth* type of super-dreadnaught, and carries almost as heavy a turret-battery.

Q.—Why do we never hear of torpedo boats?

A.—The torpedo boat has vanished from modern navies. It was a terror to the imagination of naval commanders up to about the time of the Spanish-American War, but it never proved itself. At the naval battle of Santiago de Cuba the last attempt in history by torpedo boats was made when the Spanish torpedo boats *Pluton* and *Terror* emerged from the harbor with the other Spanish ships and were sunk almost instantly by the United States ship *Gloucester*—a converted steam-yacht!

Q.—If the torpedo boat has vanished, why have we so many torpedo-boat destroyers?

A.—They are torpedo-boat destroyers only in name, and hardly even in name. It is true that they were built originally to destroy torpedo boats; but they have remained to fill a distinct naval place of their own. They are the "legs" of the fighting navy, and they form an incessantly flying guard for its armored ship squadrons.

Immensely fast, well armed with quick-fire rifled cannon as well as with many torpedo-tubes (both deck and under-water), they are formidable little war-vessels. Battles between destroyer flotillas have occurred many times in the great war, because these swift ships have practically taken over the monopoly of marine patrol, scouting and general sea-guard duty. They are known simply as "destroyers" now, and the original duty for which they were designed is practically forgotten.

Q.—Does "tonnage" in a naval vessel refer to internal capacity?

A.—No. The word "tonnage" means two entirely different things in naval usage and in commercial usage. The tonnage of a merchant ship really has nothing at all to do with weight. It is a measure of internal capacity pure and simple.

The word "tonnage," describing the size of a warship, on the other hand, does actually and very specifically refer to weight. When we say, for example, that a dreadnaught is of 30,000 tons, we mean that the ship when afloat displaces that weight of water.

Q.—Is any system used in naming the small ships added since the war?

A.—It has been impossible to do so. A number of the newly built motor-driven scout vessels are named "Submarine Chaser No. So-and-so," but most of the vessels have had to be named hit or miss.

The converted yachts largely retain their original names. The transports bear miscellaneous names, ranging from *Prairie* to *Hancock* (the latter being named for the noted General Hancock). The naval tugs mostly have Indian names, such as *Choctaw, Iroquois, Navajo,* etc., but there are many exceptions to this rule, since the war-expansion.

Q.—What kind of warships have we the most of?

A.—Destroyers form the biggest numerical part of the American Navy. In 1917, when the war began, we had on the list more than 60 destroyers of the type known as "sea-going"—that is, true warships which can cruise over seas like any other warship. Our newest and biggest ones approach the tonnage of the early American cruisers of the White Squadron, and in speed, rapidity of gun-fire and offensive power generally they would actually outmatch any of those early cruisers in a ship-to-ship fight.

In addition we have more than a score of secondary destroyers—vessels not sufficiently powerful or with a sufficient coal capacity to carry war over seas, but very good ships for coast work, for which reason they are known as "coast torpedo vessels."

In the third line we have another score and more of torpedo boats. This is the old, original type of small craft, which was supplanted for battle purposes by the bigger destroyers.

Adding the many big destroyers that have been launched since the war began (whose number it is not permissible to state) we thus have a really powerful fleet of this type alone.

Q.—What is the size of our greatest all-big-gun ships? Are they bigger than the Germans'?

A.—They are positively bigger than any that the Germans had in the beginning of the war, and our experts believe that they are bigger than any in the German Navy to-day. We believe, with very fair foundation for the belief, that our all-big-gun ships average 25 per cent more in magnitude than the best German dreadnaughts.

When war began, we had under construction five all-big-gun ships (what the British and German navies would call super-dreadnaughts) of 32,000 tons, with twelve 14-inch turret guns and armor belting 14 to 18 inches thick.

Appropriations were granted after the war declaration for four ships of 32,500 tons, carrying eight 16-inch turret guns; and hardly had naval constructors achieved this daring conception, before naval science leaped forward and at one stroke made possible the design of four monsters of 40,000 tons, mounting twelve 16-inch turret guns.

These are the mightiest ships ever designed for any navy in the history of the world.

Q.—Why do colliers accompany warships?

A.—Though modern warships can carry an enormous amount of fuel (coal or oil), they never can have too much, for modern sea operations entail not only enormous cruising radius, but they demand such extreme speed that fuel is used up in incredible quantities. Each extra knot of speed demands an increased consumption of fuel, rising in extraordinary ratio. Therefore, every modern fleet is accompanied by ships that are loaded to every inch of capacity with coal or oil.

Q.—How do fuel ships load their fuel into warships at sea?

A.—Fuel ships are genuine floating machinery depots. The ocean, even on the calmest day that ever was, is in heavy motion. Even when there are no storm waves at all, there is a very big "heave"—mile-long undulations so great that the biggest warship rolls and pitches and rises and falls. To attempt to lay two ships side by side would inevitably smash them both. Therefore, the only way to fuel a warship at sea is to maintain a safe distance between the warship and the supply ship and send the fuel across the space of sea by machinery. The fuel ships have huge towers of interlaced iron, and from these steel cables are sent across to the warship. Electrical machinery sends traveling coal-receptacles back and forth.

Q.—Are our sailors really among the best gunners of the world?

A.—Yes. This is due largely to the fact that we were ahead of other nations (even of Great Britain) in realizing that naval gunnery was not at all what it should be, or what it might be made. We learned a drastic lesson in the battle of Santiago de Cuba. Although our ships smashed the Spanish ships, an actual count and analysis of hits, as compared with the amount of gun-fire, showed that

the percentage of hits was astonishingly meager. This was especially so in the case of the big-gun fire. Very few big-gun projectiles went home. The result was a great increase in American target practice at battle ranges. It was enormously expensive, but it paid.

Q.—Can American naval gunners hit something with every shot of a big gun?

A.—By no means. No navy has succeeded in getting anywhere near such a record. In the winter practice in the Caribbean Sea, off the American naval base of Guantanamo, Cuba, our ships made records which are accepted as being very remarkable. Firing at "battle ranges"—that is, at ranges not less than from 4,000 yards to 7,000 yards (2¼ to 4 statute miles) the all-big-gun battleships averaged 21 per cent of hits at medium battle range and 7 per cent of hits at long battle range. The total average for all the types of ships at medium battle range was 11 per cent.

Q.—Is that percentage really good?

A.—It must be remembered that the ships were going at top speed when the firing was done. This means that the ranges were changing every second and the turret crews had to fire at the word of command.

You must remember also that one single clean hit by a 14-inch or 16-inch shell at medium battle range is likely to wreck a dreadnaught, and, under any circumstances, will be pretty sure to cripple it, either putting a turret out of commission, dismantling its elaborate system of electric transmission or starting a fire.

Q.—What do American warships cost?

A.—The cost varies very widely with conditions of labor and prices of raw materials. The *Pennsylvania*, one of our very modern all-big-gun dreadnaught type battleships, cost almost $12,000,000, without its guns. The hull and machinery cost 7½ millions alone. The armor cost 4 millions.

A highly modern destroyer, such as the *Ericsson*, cost $874,000, without its guns or torpedoes, and a big fleet submarine of the L type cost a little more than $525,000.

Q.—Are most of our ships coal-burners or oil-burners?

A.—All our modern ships are oil-burners. Indeed, if it were not for the fact that there still is some difficulty in supplying adequate amounts of oil, coal-burning warships might be said to have gone wholly out of date. The Secretary of the Navy said in his report of December 1, 1916, that "it may be stated that the scouts, destroyers and battle-cruisers authorized by the last naval appropriation act could not be built if coal were used for fuel."

Q.—How much oil does a fighting navy consume?

A.—In active service (meaning active fighting, which kept the big ships well under motion for a good period) the oil-burning vessels of our navy at its present magnitude would require at least three million barrels in a year. This, probably, is a minimum estimate for such a theoretical condition.

Actually, even in a year of great activity, the big ship fleets would lie at bases for a good part of the time or cruise at such slow speeds that consumption of oil would be kept down.

However, even at best, the fuel demands are great. In 1915 the American Navy burned 521,000 barrels of oil, much more than a thousand barrels a day. In 1916 it burned 842,000 barrels, or 2,300 barrels a day.

Q.—What are the tall tower-like skeleton things on our new warships?

A.—They are the so-called "cage masts" which have replaced the old-fashioned "fighting top" mast. The latter was simply a big hollow steel mast with a circular staircase inside leading to the fighting top—a lightly armored platform for observers and men handling light rapid-fire guns.

The "cage mast" is a genuine tower, made of lattice steel, and it is a characteristic of our modern ships.

The old-fashioned fighting top mast was liable to come down in ruin if one big shell struck it. The principle of the cage mast is that its web-like construction will enable it to stand even though a large number of shells plow holes through it.

Q.—Is a knot the same as a mile?

A.—No. A knot is a nautical mile, and is 6,080 feet. The mile, as known to

landsmen, is the statute mile, 5,280 feet. A ship steaming 30 knots an hour would cover 34½ of our land-miles in that hour. For rough calculation it is customary to figure a knot as equalling 1 1-7 land-miles.

Q.—What is meant by a "naval screen"?

A.—It means the sending out of scout cruisers and other very fast vessels with enough cruising radius and power to sweep far ahead and abeam of the main fleet (sometimes half a thousand miles ahead) to prevent the scouts and cruisers of the enemy fleet from finding out anything. If the screening vessels are sufficiently powerful, they may sink or drive back the enemy scouts. If they are weaker than the enemy, they try either to draw them off on a wild-goose chase, or else they race back toward the protection of their own fleet, sending wireless warnings as they go.

Q.—What are territorial waters?

A.—Territorial waters are the harbors and indentations of a nation's coasts, and, in addition, the open sea to a limit of three marine miles (6,000 yards) from the whole line of coast. This distance of three miles was fixed long ago, merely because at that time the utmost range of a coast cannon was about that distance. It has often been proposed to extend this territorial zone to ten or more miles, but the three-mile limit remains in force. Within that distance of a neutral coast, enemies may not fight or take prizes, etc.

Q.—Why are the German naval guns not so big as those of the American and British navies?

A.—The German naval principle was to depend on the very great power (ballistic property) which they deemed was assured by the Krupp method. They believed that this justified their reliance on 12-inch guns against the 14-inch guns which were being mounted in increasing numbers in other navies. But after the arrival of 15-inch guns in the British *Queen Elisabeth* class, the Germans also began to design 15-inch-gun ships. It appears reasonable to assume that our 16-inch turret batteries would heavily outclass the German ships of any date earlier than 1916.

Q.—Does the term "all-big-gun ship" mean that these monsters carry no other guns?

A.—No. They carry plenty of other guns—rapid-fire guns, machine guns, fighting-mast guns, anti-aircraft guns, automatics, and in addition a thousand or more rifles. Nor is that all. Peering from armored ports on each side are the "little brothers" of the great turret guns—a row along each side of the ship, under deck, of 5- and 6-inch guns. There are as many as twenty and more of these guns in the "secondary battery"—a battery which would have been considered as being super-armament for a cruiser of President Cleveland's time when we began our navy by building the famous "White Squadron." The heaviest ship of that squadron carried no guns bigger than 8-inch, and only a few as big as that.

Q.—What is the battleship's most dangerous opponent?

A.—Apart from its natural opponent, which is another battleship, the torpedo remains the one great menace to the battleship. In every engagement during the great war, whenever battleships (dreadnaughts) or battle-cruisers took part, they were harassed and endangered immensely by destroyer squadrons that maneuvered under thick smoke-clouds and launched torpedoes at long ranges.

Several big armored ships that might have survived the gunfire of their equals were sunk by the little craft. But, on the other hand, it is undeniable that the torpedo has failed to prove itself such "sure death" as its enthusiastic supporters had foretold.

Q.—Are some American naval ships not named for flowers?

A.—No. The ships you think of are Treasury Department vessels belonging to the lighthouse service. They are known as lighthouse tenders and are partly under naval rules—almost wholly so during war. These tenders bear such names as *Myrtle, Golden Rod, Maple,* etc.

Q.—Did an American vessel fire on an Italian warship after the United States entered the war?

A.—Late in the summer of 1917 the United States gunboat *Nashville* was in the Mediterranean on cruising duty when a submarine emerged suddenly. The *Nashville* broke out a signal which should have received an instant reply from a friendly vessel. No reply was made and the *Nashville* opened fire, killing one of the submarine's crew. Then there were signals which showed that the submarine was Italian.

Q.—Just what kind of a warship is a cruiser?

A.—In the old days of sail, and even in the early days of steam, almost any warship that was on active cruising duty was referred to as a cruiser. When steam and armor-plating came in, the term became strictly limited to certain types of ships, fairly large, swifter than other types, more or less protected, but not as heavy as the real armor-clads.

Now, with the vast and phenomenally swift increase of our navy, the term has begun once more to be very wide. We have powerful ships known as armored cruisers, ships almost as big, but much less powerful, known as scout cruisers, and very light ships (scarcely protected at all except for a thin plating of extra steel around vital parts) known as light cruisers. In addition we have little motor-driven patrol vessels that are called scout cruisers, though in former days they would have been known merely as patrol-boats.

Then there is the new type of ship known as battle-cruiser, which, actually, is bigger than the battleships of a few years ago, mightily armor-belted and laden with turret-guns.

Thus we may say that the term "cruiser," used by itself, has quite lost any specific meaning now.

Q.—At what range can a gun fired from a battleship hit an object?

A.—In the naval battle between von Spee and Craddock, off the coast of Chile, the two squadrons opened fire on each other with deadly effect at 12,000 yards. In the running fight off the Falkland Islands, most of the execution was done at a range of 15,000 yards (8½ statute miles).

Q.—Does the armor protect modern battleships absolutely?

A.—No. It protects them only relatively. That is, at extreme fighting ranges these modern ships can receive the fire from the heaviest naval guns (12-, 14- and 15-inch guns) and survive. But when the range falls to from 6,000 to 4,000 yards the armor-piercing shell from big naval guns can perforate the armor on super-dreadnaughts.

In warship construction, armor and gun have run a race for many years, with the gun always keeping a little ahead.

Q.—How thick is armor on American ships?

A.—On the heaviest all-big-gun ships the armor belting is composed of steel plates 16 and 18 inches thick. A rough and ready naval saying is that armor must always be at least the same as the diameter of the gun that may attack it. Thus, 14-inch armor for ships that may have to fight 14-inch guns, etc.

Q.—What service is required of a naval hospital apprentice, first class?

A.—The Hospital Apprentice First Class renders services required from a hospital orderly, with a training of six months in one of the four Hospital Corps Schools. He is enjoined to "study the methods of the Nurse Corps and learn all he can about the care of the sick." At sea during the past few months the hospital corpsmen have had very hard work.

At shore stations beyond the seas the hospital corpsmen have been kept a little over the usual 18-month period. They may serve today on Asiatic stations, in Europe, and with marine forces on expeditionary duty. Physical and litter drill and first-aid instruction has been given to all hospital corpsmen.

Q.—Have we established marine zones for coast defense?

A.—Yes. An executive order of April 13, 1917, established defensive areas at the entrance to chief harbors of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, Gulf of Mexico and insular Colonies. No vessel may enter the limits of these areas except by permission of the harbor patrol and by following certain definite routes. No vessels not belonging to the United States Navy may enter at night. Vessels disobeying are subject to detention for investigation.

Q.—Why does a sailor wear a black scarf?

A.—This scarf is worn in memory of the sailors who have died in previous wars. There are four stripes woven in the edge of this scarf, representing the four great wars in which our Navy has participated.

Q.—Why are a sailor's trousers made wide at the bottom?

A.—There are two reasons. One is that in landing through surf from ships'

boats, sailors must be ready instantly to leap into the sea when the boat gets into shoal water, to drag it up before the breakers swamp it. To do this, it is necessary that they shall be able to roll up their trousers above their knees with ease.

The other reason is that one of the daily duties aboard ship is to "swab decks," and that is always done barefoot and barelegged when the weather permits. The very wide, flaring trousers are, therefore, a matter of efficiency.

Q.—What is the significance of the thirteen buttons on a sailor's trousers?

A.—These represent the thirteen original states.

Q.—What is meant in the navy by the word "brig"?

A.—It is ancient navy slang for the ship's prison. Every naval vessel has a group of cells for offenders.

Q.—What other navy slang is there?

A.—There is hardly anything in the Navy from the captain to the hold that is not known by a nickname. The captain is always called the "skipper" (except before his face or before an officer). A sailor is known as a "Gob." Hash is always called "Ballast." A battleship is known as a "battle-wagon." The hammock is called a "dream-bag." Leaving the ship without leave is "jumping ship." An anchor is a "mud-hook." The electrician or wireless man is called "Sparks." The ship's carpenter is always called "Chips."

Q.—How has the wireless changed war on the sea?

A.—In the old days an admiral sailed away with his fleet, and was entirely responsible for its movements. Each individual ship, in addition, sent on special service, had to rely entirely upon itself. One of the greatest difficulties was that of communication between the ships and different detachments of fleets. Important actions might take place, but it was often weeks before the Admiralty knew anything about it. Now the governments are in actual touch with every warship, no matter in what part of the world it may be. Every torpedo boat, even, has its wireless installation and can receive the admiral's orders direct. The submarines are similarly equipped. This makes it possible for the great battleships to lie far away from the coasts and yet be always available when wanted.

Q.—Do aeroplanes have wireless?

A.—The most up-to-date have, but the range is small; ample, though, for scouting work. Owing to the noise of the motors it is impossible to receive messages on them, because aerial messages have to be read by sound. Therefore they can only send. Dirigibles, however, are fitted with wireless, which has a wide range, and can both send and receive.

Q.—What is meant by "jamming" the wireless?

A.—"Jamming" is generally resorted to by weaker ships trying to escape. They send a storm of electric waves through the air with such rapidity and strength that the pursuing ships cannot get messages of warning through to other vessels of their fleet.

The famous cruisers *Goeben* and *Breslau*, which were apparently penned in the Adriatic by a big squadron of British ships, jammed the messages of the vessels that sighted them, and did it so successfully that they succeeded in getting out of the straits of Otranto and running into the shelter of the Dardanelles.

The *Karlsruhe*, when exchanging shots with the British cruiser *Bristol*, during a running fight in West Indian waters early in the war, also succeeded in jamming radiograms so that the British cruisers *Lancaster*, *Essex*, *Berwick* and *Suffolk*, which were all in those waters, did not succeed in getting the *Karlsruhe's* location in time to come up with her. The result was that she escaped into the South Atlantic and conducted disastrous raids on British commerce for many months.

WEAPONS OF WAR

Q.—What rifle are the Americans using?

A.—The standard American military rifle is the Springfield army rifle, so named because it is made in the government armory of Springfield, Mass.

There was a sufficient quantity of Springfields on hand to arm fully the expeditionary forces that went to France in 1917. When the first draft went into the home camps, the government had about 600,000 Springfield and 100,000 Krags in hand. The Krag was the army rifle used before the Springfield was adopted, and still is a good rifle. These Krags are being replaced with Enfields, and the men who paraded in New York on Lincoln's birthday carried the latter weapon.

Q.—Is it better than the British Enfield rifle?

A.—The British Enfield is a famous arm; but in January, 1918, Secretary Baker of the War Department testified before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs that just before the outbreak of the European war the British government had decided to remodel its Enfield rifle to gain some improved characteristics such as those that exist in the Springfield, an especial point being a change to enable it to take a rimless cartridge which is one of the notable features of our Springfield rifle.

Q.—Did the country have enough Springfield rifles to arm all the troops?

A.—No. But there has been a quantity quite sufficient to supply the expeditionary forces in France from the very beginning.

Q.—Is it not true that the United States ordered Enfield rifles?

A.—Yes. There were many American factories that had facilities for making the Enfield model, because they had been filling orders for the British government. To change this machinery so that it could make Springfields would have been in many cases impossible and in all cases a matter of too much time. It was decided, therefore, to order the Enfield model to help out in the quantity.

Q.—Was not the Enfield of a different caliber?

A.—Yes; but it was found possible to change the machinery to make the Enfields take the same ammunition as the Springfields. The British rifle was .303 caliber. The Springfield is .30 caliber. The magazine of both rifles is loaded with a single motion by simply shoving in a "clip" with the requisite number of cartridges. The clip for the Springfield holds six.

Q.—What is the principle of the Enfield rifle?

A.—The British rifle is built on the principle of the famous Mauser rifle—the rifle which the Boers used against the British in South Africa and the Spaniards against us in Cuba.

Q.—Does the Springfield rifle shoot as fast as one can pull the trigger?

A.—No. There are some patterns of sporting rifles which shoot that way, but no army rifles are made on that automatic principle. The army rifles are repeaters, but the soldier must throw each new cartridge into the breech by pulling down a little lever. It is an almost instantaneous operation.

Q.—Why do armies not use automatic rifles?

A.—Partly because the automatic rifle has a very much more complicated mechanism than the army rifle. This is no great objection in a rifle for sport, because sportsmen generally are experts. The soldiers in an army, however, as a whole, are not experts. Besides this, the army rifle has to be used much harder than the sporting rifle. Therefore, it is essential that the parts of an army rifle shall be as few and simple as possible. Another objection to the automatic principle is that soldiers are prone to waste cartridges extravagantly once they begin firing.

Q.—What weapons in this war are American inventions?

A.—The submarine (discovered by an American, Bushnell, in 1775), the torpedo,

the Gatling gun, the Maxim automatic machine-gun, the Wright airplanes, and the Liberty motor are some of the important contributions of American inventive genius to the armies of the Allies —and also to the enemy armies.

Q.—Is there an explosive that turns men yellow?

A.—Yes. It is an explosive with a name almost as weird as are its effects. It is made of a mixture of T. N. T. and a chemical compound called hexanitrodiphenylamine. It stains the skin a bright yellow color which cannot be washed off. It also causes highly irritant skin eruptions, but they are not dangerous.

Q.—What is meant by von Mackensen's "phalanx"?

A.—A wedge-like tactic of General von Mackensen's army of attack around Cracow (Russian Poland) in the campaign of 1915. By the phalanx tactics, his army was fashioned into a mobile battering ram, battering its way by narrow front breaches, opened by the heavy guns, through the Russian line. The Russian line, which was of long, thin formation, was pierced and crumbled under the wedge-like ram. The tactic was used largely on the Eastern front, where the opposing lines were of great length.

Q.—Why is a big gun called "Big Bertha"?

A.—It is a slang term invented by the German soldiers (and adopted by the opposing armies) to characterize large Krupp cannon, because the present owner of the Krupp works is a woman, Bertha.

Q.—What sort of weapons were utilized before cannon came into use?

A.—There were many engines designed to fire arrows or hurl stones by mechanical means. The machines finally produced were very powerful, and for a long time held their own easily against gunpowder. They worked on the catapult principle. One favorite weapon was a gigantic cross-bow, the predecessor of the cannon of today, and another was the ballista, which was the howitzer of the Romans. These weapons were used for siege warfare, and seldom appeared on the battlefield. Small catapults were occasionally used in the field, but the ballista was only used when attacking towns and fortresses. It was large and heavy. The largest threw a stone weighing 90 pounds. The giant cross-bow would itself weigh between 80 and 90 pounds, and would send a 26-inch arrow weighing half-a-pound close on 500 yards, but its man-killing capacity was limited to 400 yards. Other ancient weapons were all modeled on the type of the catapult or the ballista, except, of course, battering rams, and contrivances for protecting men attacking walls and the like.

Q.—How were the catapults operated?

A.—The giant cross-bow was bent by drawing back the "bow-string" of rope or sinews with powerful levers. The ballista was a huge beam or plank set in a heavy platform, and it worked on the principle of a modern gun-trigger. To "set" it, it was hauled backward to firing position by men who operated stout hawsers with levers or winches. When this tension was released, the plank was jerked forward with vast violence by a "spring" made of ropes or sinews that had been twisted to the utmost degree possible.

Q.—What weapons did soldiers use during recent wars?

A.—At Waterloo the British used the old Brown Bess flint firelock. In the Crimea they had the same gun, converted to use caps. Rifles based more or less on the Mauser mechanism are now most generally used. In fact, the French Army is the only one which has stuck to the far less convenient tube magazine. This French Lebel magazine rifle is an excellent weapon, but the mechanism is more liable to get out of order than that of the more simple Mauser. The Mannlicher rifle is used by the Austrians, the Italians, the Greeks, the Bulgarians and the Dutch. The Mauser is used by the Germans, the Belgians, the Spanish, the Portuguese and the Turks. The British use the Lee-Enfield, the Russians the Nagant, the Americans the modern Springfield.

Q.—When was a breech-loading rifle used for the first time in war?

A.—In the Austro-Prussian war, of 1866, the Prussians used what was called a *Zündnadel Gewehr* (literally meaning "fire-pin gun"). They used the same gun in the Franco-German war of 1870-71, but the French had a better weapon, the chasse-pot. The German artillery was

better than the French, but the latter had the mitrailleuse, the forerunner of modern quick-firing guns.

Q.—What is the meaning of the word "camouflage"?

A.—The French word, freely translated, means "to conceal." The term was taken over from the French slang word signifying the "make-up" of an actor. It was first adopted by the soldiers in the field, who have been wonderfully apt at devising phraseology to fit the novel aspects of the great war.

Q.—How is camouflage used by the navy?

A.—Strange designs resembling cubist pictures are painted on the hull and superstructure of merchantmen and troopships. The colors are gray, light blue and drab, often dotted with pink to blend with the atmosphere. Imitation billows are painted near the water line, which naturally make the vessel look much smaller than it really is. One large steamship recently came into an Atlantic port with a picture of a destroyer painted on its side, with all the rest of the boat painted in light gray. Since the destroyer is the great enemy of the submarine it is obvious why the merchantman wanted to be mistaken for a destroyer.

Q.—How can such bright colors as pink conceal a ship?

A.—There are two principles of camouflage. One is the principle of concealment, or "low visibility," as it is officially termed. Under it, ships are painted in drab tints to make them blend against the more or less gray background of sea and sky.

The other principle, known as that of the "dazzle," entirely abandons the theory of concealment and recognizes the fact that every ship, no matter how painted, must inevitably stand out boldly and black when seen against the sun. Therefore, this second principle of camouflaging accepts visibility, and aims to paint ships in such broken designs and colors that a submarine observer shall be unable to make any accurate estimate of the distance of the vessel and shall thus be much hampered in laying his course for it or firing at it.

Q.—What are the methods of land "camouflage"?

A.—It is done by painting, by screens, by boughs of trees, by wisps of raffia tied into nets—like backstop nets on a tennis court. Stacks of munitions, garages, battery emplacements are covered by canvas, painted like the ground, so they cannot be discovered by spying aviators. Canals, roadways, everything is camouflaged. Guns are hidden beneath a mattress of interwoven leaves supported by poles. Animated stacks of straw contain observers who inch forward wherever possible, with telephone wires trailing behind them. Immense dummy cannon, mounted in conspicuous places, with stuffed men, draw the fire and thus waste the ammunition of the enemy. Life-size scenery showing a straight railroad bed conceals an important turn leading to a supply train. Whole trains, backed on sidings loaded with supplies, have been "painted out" of the landscape; buildings, bridges and all the necessary impedimenta, which go to supply the needs of vast armies, have been lost to the enemy airmen by the scientific use of broken color.

Q.—How did "camouflage" originate?

A.—Because the aeroplane in war makes impossible the massing of men, guns or supplies behind the lines in the open, in scattered sectors along fighting lines the men who were in artillery or supply soon began attempts at concealment of the great guns and supply wagons. This was done crudely at first, with tree branches, canvas screens, etc. So successful were these efforts that "camouflage" quickly became a definite and important principle of defense and artists of all sorts were withdrawn from the trenches and formed into a "Camouflage Corps."

Q.—Does "camouflage" service require special qualifications?

A.—Yes. "Camoufleurs" are, almost without exception, artists, sign painters, scene painters, sculptors, mechanics or carpenters. The work demands a high degree of imagination, initiative and individual cleverness in planning. The "camoufleur" must learn to see with the "bird's eye," and, to obtain the right perspective, must fly over the fighting lines with the aviator, taking note of the needs of the sector in which he is engaged, and his work is always on the firing line, so he needs resourcefulness and courage as well.

Q.—Are there any American "camoufleurs"?

A.—Yes. At General Leonard Wood's suggestion, American artists formed a

corps, of which H. Ledyard Towle is the head. General Wood is quoted as stating that each training camp must organize from its own members a "camouflage" corps.

Q.—What is tolite?

A.—That is one of the many names for trinitrotoluol. T.N.T., Trotyl, Tritolo, Trilite and Tritol are some other names of the same substance. It is very safe, for it requires a heavy detonation to make it explode. It can be melted and poured into shells, without any danger. Water does not harm it at all. Yet when it does explode, its violence is terrific.

Q.—Why could not gun-cotton be used in the shells?

A.—It explodes far too easily. A shell charged with it would generally explode in the gun owing to the shock of the explosion of the propulsive ammunition. Picric acid and T.N.T. do not explode easily, hence they are suitable for shells, but they could not be used as propulsive ammunition.

Q.—What is black powder made of?

A.—Nitre, sulphur and charcoal.

Q.—How is gun-cotton made?

A.—Glycerine, nitric and sulphuric acids and cotton.

Q.—To what extent is smokeless powder used in the war?

A.—Only smokeless powder is used as a propulsive nowadays. Black powder not only dirties the gun's rifling, but it is less powerful. Above all, it immediately discloses the position of the gun, to hide which elaborate precautions are taken.

Q.—What do we need to make our explosives?

A.—Gun-cotton, nitroglycerine, trinitrotoluol (T.N.T.), etc., all compounds, the manufacture of which in this country was in its infancy at the outbreak of the European war. One of the needed important chemicals is sulphuric acid, which is obtained from sulphur and from pyrites, or "fool's gold." The principal source of the latter substance has hitherto been the Spanish mines, but war has served to direct attention to Cuba, the New England States, Alabama, etc.

Sulphur is obtained in considerable quantities from Louisiana. Scarcely secondary in importance is nitric acid. It is obtained from Chile saltpeter.

One of the results of the British embargo has been to cut off Germany's supplies of this substance, forcing her to obtain nitric acid wholly from the air by expensive processes.

Toluol and ammonia, both ingredients of high explosives, are obtained from gas and coke, distillations of which also lie at the basis of the aniline dye industry.

Q.—Are we making Toluol or T.N.T.?

A.—Yes. By the beginning of 1918 American by-product coke ovens were producing about 11,000,000 gallons of toluol, and the quantity was increasing. A difficulty is that the construction of enough by-product coke retorts requires a year. Gas companies can, however, equip their plants to remove the toluol from gas.

Q.—Is the same powder used to propel shells as to explode them?

A.—No. Propulsive and explosive powders are quite different. For propulsive purposes black powder was at one time universally used, but has now been entirely discarded. Gelatinized mixtures of nitroglycerine and gun-cotton are now used exclusively. For filling the explosive shells picric acid and trinitrotoluol (T.N.T.) are used. For a detonator, fulminate of mercury is practically the only compound employed.

Q.—Why cannot one kind of powder be used for everything?

A.—For a variety of highly technical reasons. Briefly and very generally, because the "explosive" powder that bursts shells is so powerful that it would be liable to burst the guns if it were used as a propulsive powder. Furthermore, the high explosives generate gases of chemical composition that would "erode" gun chambers and gun bores—that is, eat them away. Again, the high explosives explode too quickly, whereas to get the utmost range, a shell must be hurled out of the gun by a "slow-burning" powder. Smokeless propulsive powder is slow-burning—as compared with the high explosives.

Q.—What materials are required for explosive powders?

A.—Picric acid is made from a product of coal-tar called phenol and nitric and

sulphuric acids. T.N.T. is produced by similarly "nitrating" toluene, also a coal-tar product. The disadvantage of picric acid is that it attacks most metals, hence a shell filled with it has to be protected in its interior with some material on which picric acid will not act. Trinitrotoluol, on the other hand, suffers from no such disadvantage. Picric acid, however, is mixed with nitrate of ammonium, charcoal, aluminium and trinitrotoluol. The resultant powder is called ammonal. It is largely used by the Austrians, and is very safe. It does not always explode, though, for it is apt to become moist.

Q.—How much T.N.T. does a modern army need?

A.—It has been estimated that the American mobile artillery (heavy and light field artillery) might require as much as 2,000,000 gallons of toluol in a year.

Q.—How much cotton does Germany need for explosives?

A.—That is impossible to say, as we have no knowledge of the amount of explosives being made in Germany. We must not forget, however, that cotton is used only for propulsive ammunition and not as explosive for filling shells. To make one ton of gun-cotton, half a ton of cotton fiber is needed, roughly speaking. A German Mauser cartridge contains 48.4 grains of gun-cotton, to produce which would require something over 25 grains of cotton. Assuming that there are 3,000,000 men in the field, and that they average 10 rounds daily for each man, we would have an expenditure of 51 tons of cotton a day, or 18,600 tons a year, for rifles alone. If we assume that the expenditure on machine guns is about the same, we have a total of 36,000 tons a year. The average propulsive charge for field guns is, probably, 50 pounds. Assuming that the Germans are using 5,000 guns, and that each fires ten shots a day, this would demand 1,000 tons of gun-cotton, for which about 550 tons of cotton would be required, or, say, 200,000 tons a year. This, probably, is a large overestimate. These figures are purely speculative and have no value except as furnishing some basis for possible calculation.

Q.—Did Germany have cotton stored for war?

A.—It is assumed that Germany used some 100,000 tons of cotton annually for making 180,000 tons of gun-cotton. If she had stored this for the last five years before the war, she could have had at least 900,000 tons of gun-cotton available when the war started. During 1913 Germany and Austria imported in the ordinary way 560,000 tons of cotton. Undoubtedly a good deal of this could not have been transformed into manufactured articles, and thus would be available. During 1914 it is assumed that some 12,000 tons reached Germany *via* Sweden, and that she also got supplies *via* Holland and Italy, especially the latter. It was calculated at the time that Germany would have sufficient cotton to carry her through two years' war at any rate, and she may have been able to get hold of enough to last for three years. It would seem inevitable, however, that the time came in 1917, when lack of this important ingredient in the making of ammunition became a critical problem to Germany. A certain amount of cotton is produced in Turkey, but even if the cotton fields there were greatly developed since the war began, nothing like enough could be obtained from that source. In 1912 the total cotton output of Turkey was about 200,000 bales. As there are 400 pounds in a bale this means that the total production of Turkey was only 40,000 tons.

Q.—Is there no substitute for cotton?

A.—Cotton consists of cellulose, the chief constituent of wood, but cotton fiber appears to be the only form of cellulose adapted for making gun-cotton. There is always the possibility that under the stress of urgent need the German chemists have discovered a substitute for cotton, as they have for so many other things, but it is unlikely.

Q.—What is the biggest cannon used in war?

A.—Cannon calibers have increased progressively during the war. The gun of greatest length and power made its appearance in March, 1918, when the great German offensive broke through the British St. Quentin front and began the vast Battle of Picardy.

On March 24, projectiles began to fall into Paris, which was 64 miles from the very nearest German line on that date. The greatest range ever achieved by a gun before was 20 miles.

The largest American gun in 1918 was the 16-inch coast-defense rifle. It has a range of somewhat less than 20 miles.

The big gun with which the Germans so swiftly destroyed the fortifications of Liege and Namur was a 42-centimeter gun, meaning in inches that its caliber (the diameter of its muzzle) was 16½ inches. For a long time army officers could not credit that a mobile gun of such power could really exist.

This famous 42-centimeter weapon was on the howitzer order—that is, it did not fire its projectile with a fairly flat trajectory as the rifled cannon do, but discharged it by so-called high-angled fire: it was pointed toward the sky and thus sent its shell flying in a great arc.

Q.—Have the Allies a bigger gun than the German "Big Bertha"?

A.—The French recently built a mortar of 52 centimeters caliber as against the Germans' 42-centimeter gun. One of these guns was used by the French in the Verdun surprise attack of August, 1917. Two shells fired from this gun were sufficient to wreck Fort Malmaison.

This French 52-centimeter gun is, in our figures, a trifle under 20½-inch diameter.

Q.—Are solid cannon-balls used any more?

A.—Practically every projectile from every kind of cannon nowadays is an explosive shell—that is, a conical steel shell that has in its pointed head a large hollow chamber filled with high explosive. Some of these explosive shells have a contact primer in their points—a primer that explodes the charge when the projectile strikes. Most shells, however, are fitted with a time-fuse so set that the shell explodes in a certain number of seconds after it leaves the muzzle of the gun.

Q.—Is it possible to set a time-fuse accurately?

A.—Yes. A modern artillerist knows to the fraction of a second how long it requires for his projectile to go a certain distance. Range-finders and aeroplane observation (spotting) enable him to figure to the foot just how far away the target is. The time-fuse is set in the pointed snout of the shell, and adjusted just right with a key the moment before it is shoved into the gun.

Q.—Are the great twelve and fourteen-inch shells exploded by time-fuses?

A.—No. These huge shells are used chiefly against ships or against fortifications. They are made to explode on impact—by "percussion," as artillerists call it. There is a firing pin in the sharp point of the shell, and when the projectile strikes this pin is driven home and explodes fulminate of mercury, which, in turn, explodes (detonates) the big bursting charge.

In most cases these firing mechanisms in the big shells are so set that the projectile has time first to smash through the ship's armor, so that it shall explode inside.

Q.—What are time-fuses like?

A.—They are of a vast variety of designs. For many years there have been specialists in every army in the world who studied and designed little else but fuses. Some time-fuses are simply little contrivances that contain a powder-fuse of a determined length. This is lit by the discharge of the gun, and, at about the time that the projectile reaches its goal, the flame reaches the explosive charge. Other fuses are operated by little vanes that revolve as the projectile speeds through the air. Still others operate by clockwork mechanism.

Q.—What is the artillery equipment of the American Army?

A.—The War Department decided in 1917 on the practical adoption of the French 75-millimeter (2.955-inch) field gun; a continuance of 3-inch field guns (American pattern) for use in camps at home; Colts, Browning, Vickers-Maxim and Chauchat automatic machine guns; 4.7-inch field guns, 6.10-inch, 8-inch, 9.2-inch and 10.5-inch howitzers; Lewis machine guns for aeroplane work.

Q.—What is a howitzer?

A.—Its prototype is the ancient ballista of the Romans, a machine which hurled great stones in a mighty arc through the air, so that, vaulting the defending walls, they fell on the soldiers behind. That is to say, the attack came from above, whilst that of the catapult, the forerunner of the modern gun, came from the side. The howitzer of today is really a development of the mortar. It is a short piece of ordnance, designed, like the old ballista, to throw a heavy projectile so high into

the air that it can fall from above on objects behind cover, which would be quite safe from the ordinary high-velocity gun.

Q.—Does it require a heavy charge?

A.—A comparatively small charge is needed, just enough to propel a huge shell through the air. It is not the speed of the shell which does the damage, but the bursting of the large amount of high explosive in the shell itself. As all a howitzer need to do is to give a great shell a toss into the air, so to speak, it does not need to be a long or very powerful weapon, compared to a field or naval gun, which latter weapon must actually drive its projectile almost straight to its target.

Q.—How big is a howitzer?

A.—The latest German ones are no less than 16.5 inches, inside diameter. These guns are, of course, rifled, and load at the breech. We get some idea of the difference between howitzers and guns by comparing the two British six-inch weapons. The six-inch howitzer fires a steel shell weighing 122 lbs., including a lyddite bursting charge of 19 lbs., while the six-inch gun has a 100-lb. shell, and a 10-lb. lyddite bursting charge. The howitzer weighs 30 cwts., the gun 7 tons; the former is 7 feet 10 inches long, the latter 23 feet 3 inches.

Q.—What does the 16.5-inch howitzer weigh?

A.—They weigh about 14 tons and are about 18 feet long. The British 11-inch howitzer weighs 6 tons, and is 14 feet long.

Q.—Does the weight include the carriage?

A.—No; the gun only. The equipment of a 12-inch howitzer weighs about 27 tons; that of a 16.5-inch gun would probably be not far short of 50 tons. The carriage can, of course, be taken to pieces for transport purposes.

Q.—To transport a howitzer of this size must be a great task?

A.—So difficult is it that these weapons are used for siege purposes only. It is said they require specially prepared cement bases, and cannot be used accurately without them. The Germans have smaller howitzers, which they use in the field. A 12-inch howitzer weighs about 7 tons.

Q.—How are the great howitzers transported?

A.—The great howitzers are pulled by heavy motors called "caterpillars," a modified form of engine with its wheels encircled by an endless steel band, and driven by a petrol motor.

On the outbreak of the war, they were pulled by horses, but later mechanical transport was provided for them. First, "Foden steam wagons," a kind of automobile, were employed, but proved impractical.

Q.—How heavy a projectile would it throw?

A.—This also is not known. Its terrible effects have been seen, for these guns reduced the forts at Liége by smashing the steel cupolas of the defending cannon as if they had been egg shells. Four shots sufficed to put one of the Namur forts entirely out of action. As a six-inch naval gun fires a 100-lb. projectile, and a six-inch howitzer one of 120 lbs., we may assume that a 16.5-inch howitzer has a shell weighing at least a ton. (The 16.5 naval guns fire a projectile of 2,200 lbs.) A special explosive is said to be used, which has a terrible effect. In fact, all those wounded found in the forts after the shells had fallen there were deaf.

Q.—What is the range of a howitzer?

A.—The 11-inch howitzer has an effective range of five miles. The 16.5-inch will naturally have more than that. A shell from one of these guns might kill an entire company.

Q.—Is it true that these immense howitzers can only fire twenty times before wearing out?

A.—That is probably incorrect. We know that the great naval 12-inch guns can fire at least ninety rounds before wearing out. This comparatively short life is due to the tremendous heat and the gases generated by the explosion, which, in time, crack and corrode the rifling. As already mentioned, the function of a howitzer is to toss a huge shell into the air; a huge charge is not required, hence the life of a howitzer should be far longer than that of a naval gun.

Q.—Is a big cannon useless after it fires that limited number of shots?

A.—No. But it becomes inaccurate and no longer has full range. The trouble, however, is only with the inside of the bore, and this can be replaced in the ordnance works. It is known as putting in a new core. It is, of course, an operation requiring some time.

Q.—Does it take long to make a howitzer?

A.—Nothing like as long as to make a naval gun. The latter takes about eighteen months, working during the day only; it must be wire wound, a process which requires much time. Howitzers only take weeks, where the guns require months. It is the mounting which takes so long to make.

Q.—Could howitzers be used in naval warfare?

A.—No. It would be impossible to hit rapidly moving ships with them. The only vessels armed with such weapons are monitors, which are intended to attack land forces and fortifications.

Q.—Is the machine gun a cannon?

A.—No. Its barrel is practically a rifle barrel, except that it is heavier in weight. Its caliber is no larger than that of the infantry rifle. Every army tries to have its machine guns and its infantry rifles exactly alike in caliber, so that the same ammunition can be used for both.

Q.—How does a machine gun fire?

A.—It fires semi-automatically, or sometimes automatically. In some patterns the cartridges are fed into the breech from a revolving belt. In others, they are fed in a revolving disk.

Q.—How fast does a machine gun fire?

A.—So fast that the human senses of sight and hearing cannot perceive the separate shots. A modern machine gun fires about ten shots a second, or from 500 to 700 shots a minute.

Q.—What is machine-gun range?

A.—Its range is about a mile, but in action it usually is used at much shorter ranges than that. Fired at a target a mile away, most of its ammunition would be wasted.

Q.—Exactly what purpose does the machine gun serve?

A.—The same as that of the infantry rifle—that of killing men. These two are the firearms used by armies for that purpose, whereas cannon are used more largely for making positions untenable and thus routing large bodies of men.

Q.—Who invented the machine gun?

A.—The modern machine gun was invented by Richard Jordan Gatling. It was first used in the Civil War, and consisted of ten revolving barrels. The French in the Franco-Prussian War, also used a machine gun, the mitrailleuse, which was worked with a crank. The modern single-barrel machine guns are Vickers-Maxim, Benet-Mercier, Hotchkiss, Colt, Chauchat, Lewis and Browning.

Q.—What machine guns are used most?

A.—The British army uses Vickers-Maxim and Lewis largely. The French use Chauchat automatics. The American army has both Vickers-Maxim and Colt. The army adopted a new gun, the Browning. For aeroplane work and sea service, the Lewis gun has been adopted. The camps in the United States were supplied with some specimens of the French Chauchat, as well as with Lewis, Vickers-Maxim and Colt.

Q.—What is the Browning gun?

A.—The Browning type is the very newest type of machine gun. Early in 1918 it was announced that its manufacture was being pushed forcefully, and that General Pershing had asked for this type in preference to others. It is to be a wholly automatic gun—that is, its operator need merely pull the trigger and hold it so. So long as the trigger is held in that firing position, the gun will shoot as fast as the cartridges can pour into it. After the first shot, the recoil does it all—ejects the fired cartridge, throws a new one into the firing chamber, and discharges it, repeating the process so long as the cartridge supply holds out.

Q.—Do the guns not get hot from such tremendous firing?

A.—They get almost red-hot. For this reason they all have water-cooling de-

vices, which generally consist of an outer case around the barrel filled with water. One objection to the guns has been that the steam thus generated often betrays the gun-position. The Browning machine rifle has a device to counteract this, and is so constructed that 350 shots can be fired before the gun needs cooling off. The Browning machine gun (a heavier type than the rifle) has a water-jacket like other machine guns.

Q.—Can the Browning machine gun be used like a rifle?

A.—Yes. One pattern, known as the Browning machine rifle, can be fired from the shoulder or the hip. It weighs only 15 pounds. This new American machine rifle takes 20 cartridges for one load. All that the soldier needs to do is to cock the hammer and pull the trigger. After that he needs merely keep his finger pressing the trigger and the gun will shoot until its ammunition is gone. That is not a long time, however—for the Browning machine rifle will shoot its 20 shots in from 2½ to 3 seconds.

Q.—How is the Browning machine gun fired?

A.—It is on a tripod and the gunner kneels or sits behind it. An endless cotton belt feeds the cartridges into the gun. The belt holds 250 cartridges, and the gun fires them as fast as they can be thrown in by the automatic feed. A Browning machine gun, in an endurance test, fired 20,000 shots in 2,896 seconds, or almost 10 shots a second.

Q.—Have the Germans many machine guns?

A.—It is now known that the Germans had about 50,000 of these guns in the beginning, and, despite losses due to wearing out, scrapping, or capture, it is said that the enemy has now no less than 75,000. The Germans appear to supply one machine gun to twenty men on the front line.

Q.—What is the difference between a rapid-fire gun and a machine gun?

A.—The machine gun is of small caliber and fires cartridges of the caliber of army rifle cartridges, which are fed into it automatically as quickly as the weapon can shoot.

Rapid-fire or quick-fire guns are actual cannon of calibers up to 6 inches, loaded by hand at the breech with large, fixed ammunition; that is, ammunition which is like a cartridge, containing both the propulsive powder and the projectile in one. These guns can be fired as fast as the gunners can snap open the breech, eject a fired shell-casing, and ram in another one. Rigid practice and team-work make possible an astounding number of discharges in a minute.

Q.—What is the difference between these quick-firing guns and the larger guns?

A.—The difference between these quick-fire cannon and the still larger sizes is that the larger ones are loaded with a projectile first, then with powder. This separate loading (due to the impracticability of making the big projectiles in cartridge form) naturally makes their fire slower. Remarkable speed, however, is attained by good gun crews even with the biggest calibers. Naval gun crews can fire a number of shots a minute with the huge twelve- and fourteen-inch turret guns, though each discharge entails the handling of several tons of powder and steel.

Q.—Has American shell-making capacity increased?

A.—The shell-making capacity for 75-millimeter (2.955-inch) and 3-inch shells was reported officially in January, 1918, as increased 50 per cent, and the increase for sizes above that was 25 per cent. At that time the Ordnance Department stated that it had under order 59,803,910 shells to be delivered in 1918.

Q.—What was our status of cannon production after we declared war?

A.—In his speech before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs, January 28, 1918, the Secretary of War said that Lewis machine guns for aerial use were then being manufactured "in large numbers"; that the distribution of machine guns to national draft camps was 30 Colt, 45 Chauchat, 65 Lewis; National Army cantonments, 50 Colt, 45 Chauchat, 65 Lewis. He said that during January 620 75-millimeter field-pieces (2.955-inch) had to be supplied by France, while American works could turn out only 84, but that by April the ratio would be: French, 73; American, 231; and by December, 1918, the American output would be 433 a month. Against one 155-millimeter (6.10-inch) howitzer in January, 1918,

American output would be 300 a month by the end of the year.

Q.—Has Germany everything needed for explosives?

A.—She does not produce all the raw materials, but her chemists have been able to get what is needed from other substances. Sulphur, for instance, is hardly found in Germany, but in the Hartz and Silesia there are deposits of ores containing sulphur, such as galena (sulphide of lead), blende (sulphide of zinc), and some others. She has no nitre (saltpetre), which comes from India, Peru and Chili. When distilled with sulphuric acid, it yields nitric acid, which is used in "nitrating" glycerine, cotton, phenol and toluene. For fifteen years, however, nitric acid has been won by obtaining the nitrogen from the air, in Sweden, and it is known that the Germans have extensive plants for the same purpose. Glycerine is a product of the soap works. There is, of course, plenty of coal tar, from which phenol and toluene are won. Not only have the Germans their own coal mines, they have the Belgian and French ones also. The one important thing they appear to lack is cotton.

Q.—Can the copper in fired cartridges be used again?

A.—Of course it can. The belligerents are all saving the shells of the cartridges used when at all possible. In trench warfare probably none are lost, either from machine guns or rifles. This fact is usually overlooked by those who make careful calculations as to the amount of copper Germany must import, or mine to keep her armies supplied. They gathered all used material on the battlefields from the very beginning.

Q.—Has Germany enough iron?

A.—Plenty. In 1911 the United States mined 443,000,000 tons. The United Kingdom, 271,900,000; Germany, 158,000,000; and France, 38,000,000 (the latter from mines now almost all in German possession). In the same year the United States produced 41,000,000 tons of iron ore, Germany 29,500,000, and the United Kingdom 15,500,000. Germany has made great strides in the manufacture of steel and iron. She produced 14,800,000 tons of steel to England's 6,500,000 tons in 1911, and 15,300,000 tons of pig iron to England's 9,720,000 tons. The United States easily leads the world, producing nearly 24,000,000 of steel and almost the same quantity of pig iron. Since the war the production of iron and steel has, no doubt, immensely increased in Germany; for she is momentarily in possession of all the coal and iron in Belgium and some two-thirds of the total production of France.

Q.—What is supposed to be the life of a rifle?

A.—It is calculated that a rifle will last about a month in active hard service. This means that 80,000 men would get through 1,000,000 rifles in a year. But please note that this is in "active hard service." That is a theoretical condition for which the army command must be prepared, because it may become a fact at any moment. But in actuality it will happen very rarely that any one body of troops actually will fight hard and continually for a whole month.

Q.—What size shell does an eighteen-pounder gun fire?

A.—It fires a shell 3.3 inches in diameter, and sends it 3⅝ miles. The thirteen-pounder used by British horse artillery fires a 3-inch shell. Its range is a little greater than that of the eighteen-pounder. The famous French 75-mm. gun fires a shell just a shade less in diameter (2.955 inches).

Q.—What does enfilade mean?

A.—Enfilading fire is the military term for a raking fire. A gun enfilades a trench when it is placed in such a position that it can fire straight along it, and enfilades troops when its fire takes them on the flank.

Q.—Did turpinite generate poisonous gases?

A.—According to the statements which appeared in the papers and in the cables sent from London and Paris, turpinite, the invention of the French scientist Turpin, was used during the early days of the war. According to these reports, when it exploded reddish fumes were given off, which painlessly killed all in the neighborhood.

Many circumstantial accounts of the marvelous effect on German soldiers were cabled and printed in American newspapers early in the war. According to some of these dispatches, whole companies of soldiers died so quickly on the explosion of these gas-shells that the dead were found in exactly the attitude of life.

Q.—Was this before the Germans used gas?

A.—Writing about this explosive when the accounts about its deadliness first came out, in September, 1914, Henry Stead of Australia said in his *Review*:

"It is gruesome to read of the ghastly work of the French shells. The explosive used evidently gives off a poisonous gas, which overcomes all men in the immediate vicinity and leaves them dead, covered with a red powder. In London papers just to hand, M. Turpin, the inventor (of melinite and lyddite fame), declares that his invention is of of a terrifying character, which will modify all present military tactics, and render all defensive measures illusory. M. Turpin states further that the French War Minister had decided to use his invention. The dum-dum and the explosive bullet have been prohibited by international law, foes are no longer permitted to poison wells and streams, but, apparently, these shells are not under the ban of the nations. To use turpinite, however, is obviously to invite retaliation by the Germans. Their chemists are certain to evolve something horrible, and when the Allies begin to experience its effects, they will not be able to accuse the Germans of beginning this sort of warfare. Let us hope the turpinite story is greatly exaggerated or untrue."

Most other comments at the time showed that the writers rather rejoiced that the French had found so deadly an offensive weapon.

Q.—What is the composition of the asphyxiating gas used as a weapon? When was it first used by the Germans?

A.—The Germans first used it against British soldiers at Hill 60, Ypres, May, 1915. This gas is the product of the volatilization of liquid sulphurous acid and liquefied chlorine, a process which disengages enormous quantities of vapor. It rolls in a heavy greenish yellow cloud. It causes horrible suffering, and leaves pitiable after-effects, greatly injuring the lungs. A British veteran says, "The ghastliest wounds were sweet and pleasant compared to it."

Q.—Did the British use shells with poisonous gas during the Boer War?

A.—They used lyddite, but the yellow fumes it gave off were not poisonous, although the cables telling of the surrounding and shelling of Cronje and his force near Kimberley certainly conveyed the impression—an entirely incorrect one as it turned out—that many of the Boers were suffocated where they lay.

Q.—What is a lachrymal shell?

A.—It is the name given to a German shell whose explosion causes a copious flow of tears and irritation in the eyes. There has been considerable discussion concerning the nature of the tear-exciting substance employed, but thus far its contents do not appear to have been definitely determined. One of the most powerful of tear excitants is acrolein, which is obtained when fats of glycerine are burned, but the enemy would certainly not destroy fatty substances in this way. Another acrid gas is formaldehyde, which may be utilized. There is a general opinion, however, that common pepper has been used, the tear-exciting constituent being expelled from the pepper by heat. Large quantities of red pepper are grown in Hungary, so that there would be no difficulty in obtaining supplies. Protective measures are comparatively easy to adopt against the tear shells.

Q.—Are both sides using liquid fire?

A.—The Germans used it first, according to all reports. The Allies have been using liquid fire and flame projectors for some time now. The British used it for the first time at Loos. The Italians have been making use of it also; so, too, have the Russians. The basis both of the liquid fire and of the flame used in the projectors is petroleum. The exact composition has not been published. It is reminiscent of the famous Greek Fire of the ancients. This mixture was the invention of one Callinicus, an architect, in the seventh century. What it was composed of is still a matter of conjecture. It was presumably made of sulphur and naphtha, with quicklime added. It took fire spontaneously when wetted, was therefore used against ships, or had to have water thrown on it when being projected.

Q.—How is liquid fire used?

A.—It is sprayed at the hostile trenches from portable containers, known as projectors. The projectors are brought as close as possible, under concealment, to the point of attack, arranged in groups of from 50 to 200 and more, and discharged at the desired moment. They squirt the blazing material into the enemy lines, as a fire-engine would squirt water.

Q.—Has poison gas any effect upon horses or dogs?

A.—Poison gas is equally destructive to all forms of animal life, and all horses and dogs employed in the war zone are provided with specially designed gas masks. The mask for horses consists of a simple bag placed over the animal's nostrils so that the air breathed is taken through the interstices of the fabric. The bag is treated with a chemical powder, which neutralizes the dangerous gases before they reach the nostrils of the horse.

Q.—Are there many different kinds of gas?

A.—Yes. Very many. The first gas was a chlorine gas. It was projected in waves, and could be used only when the wind was right. This, however, was soon replaced by chlorine gas inclosed in shells, which liberated the deadly thing when they exploded. Other gas followed in quick order. One was merely laughing gas, and incapacitated its victims from action for a while, but did no further harm. Another was made from mustard, and affected its victims only temporarily.

Q.—How could men in the open be gassed?

A.—The gases used are heavier than the air. The gas, therefore, flows into trenches and underground shelters like water, and thus strangles men who happen to be anywhere where air-currents may drive the poisonous fumes.

Q.—How can men tell in time when gas is coming?

A.—Most gas shells explode with much less noise than is made by any other explosive shell. The odor also warns of the arrival of most gases. There is a regular signal now to warn of gas. A green rocket is sent up and every man who sees it knows that he must put on his gas mask at once.

Q.—What is phosgene gas?

A.—It is a perfectly odorless gas. If the soldiers are not warned by identifying the peculiar exploding sound which the phosgene shell makes, there is no other way to discover it. It cannot be detected, indeed, until the heart stops beating and the victim falls dead.

For defense against this, men were specially trained to distinguish the slight difference in tone between the detonation of a gas shell and other shells, and it became their business to watch for the deadly arrivals.

Then the Germans met this with another move which for a time seemed to baffle all efforts to counteract it. They mixed gas and explosives in the same shell. This is the form of attack they tried on the Americans in February and March, 1918.

As an emergency measure the Allies then ordered gas masks to be worn continuously, but the Germans invented sneeze bombs and tear bombs to force the men to take their masks off.

Q.—Is there a defense against gas?

A.—Yes—one, and one only. It is the gas mask. The United States is spending millions now on gas masks, and they are as indispensable a part of a soldier's outfit as cartridges. It is estimated that 20 per cent, at least, of the shells that are fired are gas shells. So vast a part of war has gas become that the United States has a Gas Defense Service in its Medical Department.

Q.—Were gas masks invented in this war?

A.—Soon after the first German gas attack English and French women sent to the front hundreds of thousands of home-made gas masks. For the most part, they were merely bandages impregnated with chemicals to wrap around the mouth and nose.

The next thing in gas masks was a cloth helmet or hood dipped in neutralizing solution, the bottom of which was tucked in the collar. This hood had two eye goggles. Air was breathed in through the cloth. The chemicals in the cloth filtered the incoming air, but there was no provision for exhalation, and within a short time the man was unable to get a proper amount of good air.

The next improvement was to put in an exhaust or outlet for the exhaled air. This type of mask has been used extensively. Its disadvantages are that a man cannot hear well, the chemicals in the cloth cause him trouble, and the mask cannot long remain impermeable to gases.

Q.—What gas mask are the Americans using?

A.—A very scientific respirator mask with a face piece of absolutely impervious material, with glass or celluloid eye pieces, held in place by rubber bands around the head. A canister is carried in a small knapsack and a flexible tube connects with the face piece.

Inside the face piece is a small wire clamp with rubber pads, which fits on the nose and forces the wearer to breathe through his mouth. The end of a flexible tube has a rubber mouthpiece, through which the man breathes. The incoming breath comes through the canister, which is filled with several layers of special chemicals of an absorbent nature, that neutralize or render harmless the gas-laden air. The outgoing breath passes outside the face piece through a small rubber valve.

Q.—Is the American gas mask like the German?

A.—No. In the German mask the container for the neutralizing chemicals is screwed into a ring in the bottom of the mask. There is no outlet valve for the exhaled air, both incoming and outgoing air passing through the container.

Q.—How are the gas masks used?

A.—The mask is carried in a knapsack at the left hip, supported by a shoulder band. When troops approach a danger zone, the straps are shortened and the knapsack is shifted to rest high on the chest, ready for instant use. This is known as the "alert position." The soldier has merely to open the knapsack, pull out the flexible hose with the face piece attached, put the rubber mouthpiece in his mouth and adjust the bands over his head. The nose clip can easily be adjusted from the outside after the face piece is on. This nose clip insures that even if the fabric of the face piece should be pierced, the soldier would still be breathing entirely through his mouth.

Q.—Do the American gas masks furnish absolute protection?

A.—The present American mask affords more protection than any other device in existence. The chemicals in the canister will neutralize the heaviest concentrations of gases for a period at least ten times longer than the possible duration of any gas attack.

For every mask there is at least one extra canister. These canisters are detachable from the tube. When a canister has lost its efficiency, it can be detached, and a new canister put on.

A Gas Defense School has been established in each cantonment, and a gas mask factory, with 4,000 workers, has been organized.

Q.—Was gas ever used before?

A.—The Chinese used the famous "stink-pot" ages ago. Devices that made strangling smoke were used in the siege of Troy.

Q.—What is a glacis?

A.—The name given to the ground in front of a fortification. It is sloped so that it can be covered thoroughly by the fire from the guns of the fort.

Q.—Are the tanks really of much service in the war?

A.—When they first appeared the tanks seem to have done excellent work, but there has been no weapon ever devised against which more or less effective defence has not been found. Had the British marshalled a huge array of tanks before the enemy lines they might have pushed their way through, but the few tanks first employed, though very useful, could not alone smash the enemy defences. When the British had more of the monsters ready, the Germans had discovered a more or less effective reply to them in the shape of a field gun, which they were able to bring into the trenches. The Germans made the same mistake when they first used poisonous gas. They experimented on a short front, and, when they were ready to utilize the new weapon on a great scale, gas masks had rendered it more or less harmless. Had they begun on the entire front at once they might have reached Paris.

Q.—How are the British tanks armed?

A.—There are two types of British tanks. One carries two six-pounder, rapid-fire Hotchkiss guns and four Lewis machine guns. The other is armed with six Lewis guns. Each type weighs about thirty tons, and is manned by an officer and seven men. The armor plate is of ¾-inch steel of a special composition, and has great powers of resistance against rifle, machine gun and shrapnel fire.

Q.—What is the best weapon used against the tanks?

A.—The most efficacious weapon against the tanks is the armor-piercing bullet. It is feared by the crews of the tanks, because it pierces the armor and produces flame which frequently sets fire to the fuel reservoir.

Hand grenades, employed one at a time, are useless. It is necessary to employ a

concentrated charge (several cylinders grouped around a central grenade), and throw it under the tank; but this is a difficult task.

Machine guns are useless against them. But the tanks, in turn, are helpless against steel shells from any of the field artillery guns used to-day.

Q.—Have the Germans captured any tanks?

A.—Yes. In February, 1918, pictures reached America showing a tank captured at Cambrai parading through Berlin from the Tempel-hof parade ground to the zoological gardens.

Q.—Is the tank not a brand new war invention?

A.—They were used exactly 2,157 years before they made their appearance on the British-German lines. In the tremendous siege of the "Queen of Africa" Carthage, the Romans attacked the walls with "tortoises"—immense tortoise-shaped tanks on wheels, whose backs, covered with timber, iron scales, hides and straw padding protected the soldiers underneath against the liquid fire, projectiles and boiling water that rained down on them from above. They also attacked with a huge armored tower on wheels, the famous "Hellepolis." The attacks failed. The Carthaginians devised a defense against each new apparatus in turn.

Q.—What does the word "abatis" mean?

A.—It is a military term to describe one of the obstacles which, when the war began, were used in defense of field works. Such defense is probably obsolete now. It was formed of the limbs of trees, twelve or fifteen feet long, laid close together, the larger branches pointed towards the enemy and the stems secured to the ground. The object of an abatis is, of course, to break up the enemy's advance. Nowadays heavy explosive shells sweep such obstacles out of the way with ease. Barbed wire takes its place now.

Q.—Who used barbed wire first in modern warfare?

A.—The Boers in South Africa, and then the Russians and Japanese in Manchuria. It is now one of the most important of defensive appliances.

Q.—How is barbed wire cut by the soldiers?

A.—The wire is not actually cut, it is swept away by the blast made by special shells. These are not made with thick walls, as it is not the flying fragments which do the damage when the shell explodes, but actually the wind of the explosion. A Dumezil shell will clean up a network of wire over an area of about 100 square feet. These special shells are thrown a distance of about 1,200 feet by small trench howitzers.

Q.—Can the most complicated wire entanglements be swept aside in this way?

A.—The ordinary entanglements cannot stand against these shells, but there are methods of arranging the wire in spirals, which effectively defy the shells. In fact, the more the spirals are bombarded the more the different coils become entangled, forming an inextricable jungle, on which hostile attacks are vain. The French have greatly developed this method of wiring, which they call *Brun* networks.

Q.—Who invented barbed wire?

A.—An American, Colonel Elbridge who, it is said, used his wife's hairpins for barbs in his early experimental work.

Q.—Is gasolene used much in modern war?

A.—It has made an immense difference. Owing to its use transport has been greatly accelerated, and guns especially have been moved with wonderful speed. The Germans have perfected steel-clad motor-cars with disappearing turrets, from which heavy, rapid-fire guns pour streams of lead. It is these "moving forts" which have given the Germans an advantage, and made up, to some extent, the poor shooting of their infantry. The heavy howitzers and field guns are dragged by gasolene or oil-driven engines, and it is used for the ambulance cars, and all manner of transport.

Q.—Does anybody know the amount of British orders for munitions placed here?

A.—From August, 1914, to the middle of July, 1917 (about 3 years), the British Government placed orders for ordnance of all kinds and all kinds of ammunition, totaling $1,308,000,000. An illustration

of the scale of American preparation is the fact that in the seven months following the entrance of the United States into the war (from the middle of May to the middle of December, 1917), the Ordnance Department of the United States Army placed orders for $1,500,000,000.

Q.—Were dum-dum bullets actually used in this war as charged by both sides?

A.—Probably not, although both sides have accused each other of making use of them. There is no doubt that the wounds men have received on both sides appear to have been caused by this expanding bullet. The explanation is that the German Army, the British Army, and others use what is called the "spitz" (pointed) bullet. This, when it goes through soft parts, makes a very small hole, but when it encounters an obstacle, like a bone, sometimes turns sidewards, and inflicts a horrible wound. The scarcity of antimony for hardening the lead has probably caused very soft bullets to be made in Germany.

Q.—Do the British shells contain far more copper than the German?

A.—They used to, at least. The British fuses contain 24 ounces of gunmetal, and the French and German only 3½ ounces. The Germans are fully aware of the fact, and offer rewards for all British fuses collected. Assuming that their artillery fired 40,000 rounds into the German trenches in a day, and only half the fuses were collected, the guns at very great cost would actually have supplied the enemy with enough copper for 250,000 shells!

Q.—Is it true that Germany was short of shells after the battle of the Marne?

A.—Apparently she was, although in those early stages of the war, before the trench dead-lock was established, nothing like the number of shells and guns was needed as is required to-day.

Q.—What is meant by bridgehead?

A.—A bridgehead is a position which commands the crossing of a river. It is not necessarily at an actual bridge to span the stream. Owing to the long range of modern guns a bridgehead may actually have to be a long way away from the river itself, as its function is to prevent the enemy artillery from interfering with the crossing army, and to hold a position that shall enable the big body of the army behind to form in security.

Q.—Is the French 75 the greatest artillery weapon?

A.—Among quick-firing guns it is said to be pre-eminent. It has this immense advantage that it does not require to be re-aimed after each discharge. The recoil is entirely taken up by the shock-absorbers and the gun points at exactly the same mark all the time. The following comparison between the 75 and its German rival is interesting:

	French 75.	German 77.
Length	8 feet	7¾ feet
Maximum range	3¾ miles	3 miles
Shots per minute	25	9
Weight of shrapnel	15 lbs.	14 lbs.
W'ght explosive shell	11 lbs.	11 lbs.
Initial velocity sec.	1720 feet	1510 feet
Bullets in shrapnel	300	300
Weight of cannon	2250 lbs.	1950 lbs.
Gunners with each piece	7	8
Guns in battery	4	6
Batteries per army corps	30	24
Total number of cannon (1914)	2520	3600

Q.—Has the shell of the French 75 been altered since the war?

A.—The main alteration has been the increased number of fragments into which the projectile breaks. One of these shells now bursts into more than 2,000 pieces, some of them so small as to wound fatally without making a conspicuous abrasion on the skin. The tiniest of particles possesses so great a velocity as to inflict grave injuries at 30 or 40 yards from the spot where the shell bursts.

Q.—Why have the Germans not mastered the secret of the French 75's?

A.—Presumably they do know the secret, but evidently do not find it practicable or advisable to replace their own 77 quick-firing gun with the French model.

Q.—How fast can the 75 fire?

A.—The famous 75 will shoot as many as 16 shells a minute, and many of them have fired 2,000 shells in a single day, although they are seldom called upon for such an achievement. It keeps 500 workmen constantly busy to supply one

of the 75's with shells once it gets into action.

Q.—Is the Ross rifle still used by the Canadian troops in France?

A.—No. Although this rifle had stood pre-war tests exceedingly well, Lord French in 1915 urged its entire withdrawal. It appears, however, to have been used till August, 1916, when the equipment of Canadian troops with the regulation British arm, the Lee-Enfield, was begun.

Q.—Can shell-torn battlefields be cultivated?

A.—There has been a general belief that agricultural lands devastated by shell fire will require a decade of cultivation to bring them to their former fruitfulness. An American farming expert, however, who has given the subject much study, and who has personally visited the battlefields, says that not only can the lands be recovered, but that they can be made just as fruitful as ever.

Q.—What is a communication trench?

A.—This trench, known by the soldiers as "C. T.," is a trench leading back from the front or firing line to the rear, as protection to those bringing up supplies, etc.

Q.—What are dug-outs?

A.—They are the underground shelters or caves in the trenches in which soldiers on duty may rest, relatively safe from the danger of exploding shells or bullets. They constitute also a definite part of the front-line fortifications, as soldiers can be dislodged from such cave-like strongholds only by throwing bombs into them or employing suffocating gas.

Q.—Is direct injury achieved by artillery fire against enemy batteries?

A.—It has been thought by some that the only thing that counts is bombardment of the infantry. General Ludendorff, Chief of the German General Staff, in a report dated October 4, 1917, shows, however, that artillery fire against artillery positions is a very serious matter. The average number of guns lost by a single German Army in a single month were stated to amount to 1,455, of which 870 were field guns and 585 heavy pieces. Of the total of 1,455 about 655 were lost through wear, and 800 through Allied bombardments.

Q.—What is meant by a "Silent Susie"?

A.—A German high explosive shell not heard until it bursts. As most of the large shells can be both seen and heard, because their swift flight makes a loud screaming or whistling sound, the "Silent Susie" is more to be feared than some of the others.

Q.—What is meant by a "Whiz-Bang"?

A.—The lightest shrapnel shells used by both sides.

Q.—What is shrapnel?

A.—Shrapnel is an explosive shell, fired like other explosive shells from a rifled cannon. But, unlike all other explosive shells, which have thick steel walls to make their bursting power effective, the shrapnel shell is only a thin steel casing —a "can," so to speak. The old term "cannister" is based on this very fact.

The shrapnel shell is filled with explosive like other shells, but, in addition, is packed with bullets by the hundreds. A time fuse is so adjusted that the shell shall explode when it is over a position occupied by troops. The bursting of the shells drives the bullets in a spreading rain of metal with deadly force.

It is the most savage form of artillery attack known against troops that are at all in the open. To be truly effective, however, it requires extreme accuracy.

Q.—Why is it called shrapnel?

A.—It is named for its inventor, a British General named Shrapnel, who served in the early part of the nineteenth century, dying in 1842.

Q.—Are trench periscopes like submarine periscopes?

A.—Very much so, both in principle and construction, being a tube, more or less long, with prisms and mirrors in it which reflect to the observer below the image seen by the great glass "eye" at the top. The trench periscope, however, is easier to hide from the enemy than the submarine periscope. It can be erected among tree branches, or in similar "camouflage" so that no hostile watcher is very likely to sight it. Some of the periscopes are small, but others are giants that are moved from place to place on little carts. These monsters have telescopic tubes, which can be raised so high that the observer can look over all sorts of obstacles into enemy positions.

OUR ARMY

Q.—What officer commands all the American war forces?

A.—No officer can ever have their command, because the Constitution of the United States makes the President Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. His powers as such are those of military command and include, of course, the right to dispose the national forces where they can be used to best advantage. In the War of 1812, in the Mexican War, in the Spanish War, in the Boxer rebellion, and, recently, in Mexico, American troops were thus sent to fight on foreign soil. These, however, were all either volunteers or regulars.

Q.—Who is the Chief of Staff of the U. S. Army?

A.—Major-General Peyton C. March assumed these duties in March, 1918, after Major-General Tasker H. Bliss (who had succeeded Major-General Scott in September, 1917) had gone to Europe to represent the United States in the Supreme War Council.

Q.—What was the peace strength of the regular army?

A.—It consisted of 5,014 commissioned officers and 92,973 enlisted men, which included about 6,000 so-called Philippine Scouts. In November, 1917, the strength of the Regular Army was approximately 7,500 officers and 360,000 enlisted men.

Q.—What was the strength of America's army in 1918?

A.—At the beginning of 1918 the regular army consisted of 10,250 officers and 475,000 enlisted men, the National Guard of 10,031 officers and 400,900 enlisted men, the National Army of 480,000 men, and the reserve of 84,575 officers and 72,750 enlisted men, a total of 1,539,485 officers and men.

Q.—Is there a National Guard organization in the U. S. army?

A.—The National Guard service, approximating 300,000 men, was incorporated into Federal service August 5, 1917.

Q.—What is the smallest army organization?

A.—The smallest unit or "team" in the Army is the squad. A squad usually consists of eight men, one of whom is the leader; he is called the "corporal." The object of the company commander is to make this a permanent unit by putting men together who will work well in unison.

Two, three, or four squads (usually three) may be joined in the next higher unit, which is called a "platoon." The platoon is not so permanent as a squad, but is formed whenever there is need for it.

Q.—How is a company made up?

A.—The company is made up at full strength of 150 men; this is about 18 squads or 6 platoons. This number is "war strength" in our old tables of organization; the first division now in France has 200 men per company. It is probable the strength may become 250 per infantry company. Figures for the number of squads and of platoons are never definitely fixed. A company in the field is seldom at full strength, and it may be convenient at any time to change the numbers of squads and platoons.

Q.—What is an army division?

A.—A division is a group of various branches of the Army, making the whole body complete in itself—that is, able to fight by itself, feed itself, transport its supplies, etc. Thus, the American Infantry Division, as organized for modern war, has not only infantry, but cavalry, artillery, engineers, signal and quartermaster corps, medical and sanitary troops and supplies, etc.

It should be noted that in newspaper articles the reference to a "division" frequently means a mere body of men detached on some special expedition. This is not an Army division. It is an expeditionary force only. But such an expeditionary force, if operating far away, may have all the organization of a division on a miniature scale.

Q.—How big is an army division?

A.—A United States Army Infantry Division has two infantry brigades (four regiments), two machine-gun battalions,

two regiments of light artillery, one regiment of heavy artillery, one trench-mortar battery, one extra (divisional) machine-gun battalion, one regiment of engineers, one field signal battalion with all the necessary "trains" for transport. The total strength is 887 officers and 26,265 enlisted men.

This is much larger than "divisions" used to be. The size of divisions in most armies used to be about 19,000 men.

Q.—How many men are in a British division?

A.—In pre-war days such a division would have been composed of twelve infantry regiments, nine batteries of 18-pounders, two batteries of 5-inch howitzers, three batteries of 4.5-inch heavy battery siege guns, ammunition column, two field companies and engineers, signal company, two mounted infantry companies, three field ambulances of sixteen wagons each, and a baggage train. In all it would consist of 19,111 officers and men, 6,773 horses, 24 machine guns, 54 field 18-pounder guns, 12 howitzers, 4 "long Toms," 198 ammunition wagons, 8 motor cars, 274 two-horse wagons, 232 four-horse wagons, 241 six-horse wagons, 135 bicycles. In a division in the field to-day there would certainly be much more artillery, far greater numbers of machine guns, and practically all the horse equipage will have been replaced by motors.

Q.—What is the reason for dividing an army up into squads, regiments, etc.?

A.—Fundamentally, the same reason that leads business men to divide their business organizations into various departments. If an army were in one body, it would not only be absolutely unwieldy, but the commanding general and his staff could not possibly issue orders to it.

Under the system of dividing it, the commander-in-chief is able to issue his order to the entire army under him with the utmost ease and quickness by simply sending the orders to the division commanders. These, in turn, do not need to try to reach their entire divisions, which, it must be remembered, may be scattered over many, miles of country. They simply give the orders to their brigade commanders, and these transmit the command to the regimental headquarters. Thus, an army order, instead of needing to be passed to thousands of officers, needs to be sent to only a very few headquarters, and the commanding general always knows where these are at a given moment.

Q.—What is a battalion?

A.—In the American Army it is an organized force of about 1,000 men (if composed of infantry)—that is, it is not a full regiment, but it is a body of men formidable in number and yet sufficiently compact to be easily handled.

In former times a battalion was of interest to army men chiefly as being a convenient and useful administrative unit of the army organization; but in the great war it has become one of the very important sub-divisions of armies for direct fighting.

The strength of a battalion varies in the various armies. Some have expanded it so that it is almost as big as a regiment; but the best practice appears to be the one that has been adopted for the fighting organization of the United States.

Under this system, a battalion of infantry has 1,000 men under 26 officers, the commanding officer being a major.

The other branches of the service have less men in a battalion.

There are two forms of American machine-gun battalions. One has 550 men under 20 officers, and it has 36 heavy machine guns and 12 spare guns. The other form of battalion has 728 men under 26 officers, and it has 48 heavy machine guns and 16 spare guns.

A brand new type of American battalion is the trench-mortar battalion, whlch has 757 men under 17 officers.

Other American battalion strengths are: light artillery, 579 men under 17 officers; heavy field artillery, 476 men under 12 officers; engineer battalion, 753 men under 20 officers.

Q.—What is an adjutant-general?

A.—An officer who keeps the records, orders, and correspondence of the Army. He serves under the direction of the Secretary of War and of the Chief of Staff. Through him and over his name instructions and regulations of the War Department are sent forward to military officers and troops. He is at once a secretary and archivist to the Secretary of War, and, to a large extent, rules the legal questions of an army.

Q.—What offenses in the American army incur death penalty?

A.—Eleven offenses are named in the regulations. Of these, spying, murder, and rape, and sometimes desertion in the face of the enemy are punishable by hanging. The others are punishable by shooting, but the method is left to the commanding officers. The lesser offenses

so punishable are cowardice, in any one of a variety of ways; sleep or drunkenness on sentry post; desertion or the incitement to or assistance in desertion; attack upon a superior officer or insubordination; mutiny or sedition; making known the countersign; aiding the enemy with ammunition "or any other thing," or harboring or giving intelligence to the enemy.

In the offense of "neglect of sentry duty," which is a betrayal of responsibility whose seriousness has made it an almost unforgivable crime against military law, the letter of the regulation recognizes no difference between being asleep and being intoxicated.

Q.—Is it any excuse for a sleeping sentry to plead that he was worn out?

A.—The regulations say distinctly that "the fact that the accused had been previously overtaxed by excessive guard duty is not a defense, although evidence to that effect may be received in extenuation of the offense." The reason for this severity is that the sentry who neglects his duty may have jeopardized all his comrades and perhaps the fate of a battle or even a campaign.

Q.—What is done to a private who punches an officer?

A.—He may be punished by death. He certainly will be punished with great severity. The American Army regulation is:

"Any person subject to military law, who, on any pretense whatever, strikes his superior officer or draws or lifts up any weapon against him, being in the execution of his office, or willfully disobeys any lawful command of his superior officers, shall suffer death or such other punishment as a court-martial may direct."

Q.—What is the difference between a brigade and a regiment?

A.—A brigade is a force made up of a number of regiments. An American infantry brigade, under present conditions, contains two infantry regiments and has, in addition, a machine-gun battalion. Each regiment is commanded by its own officers, the commanding officer of each being a colonel. The whole is commanded by a general of brigade, better known as brigadier-general.

Brigades in old days often were as small as 3,000 men, but with the modern increase of regimental strength, an American infantry brigade, at full war strength, has 8,000 men with 232 commissioned officers.

There are, also, brigades of field artillery and of cavalry. A field artillery brigade has two regiments of light artillery, one regiment of heavy artillery, and a trench-mortar battery. A cavalry brigade consists of three regiments of cavalry. Artillery and cavalry brigades have about 5,000 men each, counting officers.

Q.—What is meant by a battery? Does it mean any number of cannon or only a few?

A.—"Battery" means to the artillery what "company" means to the infantry regiment—that is, it is the smallest unit of the organization, which is commanded directly by commissioned officers.

An American battery of light artillery has four 3-inch guns and 193 men under 5 officers.

The American battery of heavy field artillery has four 6-inch guns, 228 men, and five officers. (Of course, there is the full proportionate number of non-commissioned officers, such as sergeants, corporals, etc.)

When two batteries of heavy, or three batteries of light, field artillery are combined, the organization is a battalion, and a major commands it.

Q.—What is the difference between commissioned officers and non-commissioned ones?

A.—Commissioned officers hold their position only by virtue of a commission issued to them under authority of the President as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. In the old establishment of the Army, the regular Army officers were mostly from West Point, with comparatively few officers promoted from the ranks or appointed from civilian life.

Non-commissioned officers are always men selected from the privates, and, despite their titles (corporal and sergeant), they remain distinctly of the status of privates, in so far as their rank compares with that of even the lowest commissioned officer.

They are appointed by the commanding officer of the regiment, usually on recommendation of the company commander. They may be degraded to the ranks again, for cause.

Q.—Do commissioned officers in the army not get certain extras beside their pay?

A.—They do. There are standard extra allowances for such things as "quarters" (meaning rental for living quarters), "light" (meaning a stated allowance per month for whatever light they need at night), "forage" (feed for cavalry horses), etc. The schedule of these extra allowances is fearfully and wonderfully intricate. It has been the subject of innumerable Congress laws and war-department regulations, and old army officers, despite all their experience, find it a decidedly difficult task to figure out just how the allowances obtain in given cases.

Roughly speaking, these extras increase the pay of American Army officers by about $30 monthly in the case of second lieutenants; $46 for first lieutenants; $59 for captains; $73 for majors; $87 for lieutenant-colonels; $110 for colonels; $114 for brigadier-generals; $127 for major-generals. It must be remembered that the theory is that these allowances are not added pay, but merely allowances to meet actual expenses.

Q.—Is an officer on inactive duty entitled to wear his uniform?

A.—He may if he desires. He must when on active duty. In the days of peace, a West Point man considered it very much against etiquette to wear his uniform at any time except when he was on actual duty within army limits. So far was this observance carried that officers assigned to duties where uniforms were obligatory, often carried them in suitcases and donned them only on the spot where they had to wear them. It was a very rare thing, indeed, to see an American officer on the streets in uniform.

Q.—What is a private's first promotion?

A.—Promotion to corporal. These are usually chosen from the first-class privates. Corporals are the squad leaders. They are appointed by the commanding officer of the regiment on the recommendation of the commanding officer of the company. In addition, each company may have one lance corporal, a temporary appointment made by the company commander for the purpose of testing the ability of some private for permanent appointment. If the lance corporal does not make a good showing, he is returned to the ranks when the commander sees fit.

Q.—Is a sergeant the highest non-commissioned officer?

A.—Yes. He is next above the corporal in rank. There are usually 9 to 11 sergeants in a company. Unless a sergeant has some other duty assigned to him, he is normally the leader of a platoon. There are, however, many special duties assigned to sergeants. The first sergeant (in Army slang, the "top sergeant") keeps certain company records, forms the company in ranks, transmits orders from the company commander, and performs other important tasks. The supply sergeant sees to bringing up supplies of all kinds to the company. The mess sergeant looks after food. The stable sergeant is responsible for the care of horses and mules. The color sergeant carries the colors. There are many other grades within the rank of sergeant.

Q.—What is the pay of American privates?

Rank.	Monthly pay. Serving in U. S.	Serving Abroad.
Private	$30.00	$33.00
First-class private	33.00	36.60
Corporal	36.00	40.20
Sergeant	38.00	44.00
First sergeant	51.00	60.00

Q.—Is an army corps a whole army by itself?

A.—It is; but a still bigger army, known as the field army, or simply as "the army," may be made of two or many more army corps. The "armies" holding the European fronts consist of dozens of army corps.

In the United States service an army corps is formed by combining two or more divisions. Such a corps may consist of corps headquarters, 6 complete divisions, and special corps troops, including 1 pioneer regiment of infantry, 2 regiments of cavalry, 1 anti-aircraft machine-gun battalion, 1 anti-aircraft artillery battalion, 1 trench mortar battalion, 1 field battalion, signal corps, 1 telegraph battalion, 1 aero wing, 1 regiment of engineers, 1 pontoon train, 1 corps artillery park, 1 remount depot, 1 veterinary hospital, 1 bakery company, 1 supply train, 1 troop transport train. In addition, 1 artillery brigade, 1 sanitary train, and 1 corps engineer park may be formed from detachments from the divisional organizations. Its approximate strength is 185,000 officers and men.

Q.—How big is an American army corps in France?

A.—In March, 1918, it was decided to make an army corps of six divisions in order to conform to the "three-line" warfare at the front—two divisions to hold a front line, two divisions behind them for re-enforcement or replacement, and behind them again another two divisions for the same purpose.

Q.—Is a staff officer the member of a commanding officer's staff?

A.—Any officer assigned to the staff of a commander, large or small, is known as staff officer. But the "staff" of an army is far more important and diversified than that. The "staff" branches of the army are all the branches that are not in the three fighting branches, infantry, artillery and cavalry.

There are nine other branches, and these are the staff. They are: General staff corps, composed of specialists and authorities in tactics and strategy; adjutant general's department; judge advocate general's department; engineer corps; signal corps; medical department; quartermaster corps; ordnance department. The first four contain only officers. The others contain officers and specially trained enlisted men.

Q.—Is an army general as big a man as a naval admiral?

A.—He is, in the American service. The two ranks compare exactly alike. We have, however, had very few soldiers of the rank of full General. In fact, we have had only four in our whole history —Washington, Grant, Sherman and Sheridan. The way the other ranks compare is:

Lieutenant-General ..... Vice-Admiral
Major-General .....Rear-Admiral
Brigadier-General ..... Commodore
Colonel ..... Captain
Lieutenant-Colonel ..... Commander
Major ..... Lieutenant-Commander
Captain ..... .Lieutenant
First Lieutenant.Lieutenant, junior grade
Second Lieutenant ..... Ensign

There are no more Commodores, by the way, in active service. It is a title used only in the retired list.

Q.—Why do none of the army officers we see wear a sword?

A.—The sword has gone out of use in field service, and officers now wear swords only in full-dress parade or on full-dress ceremonial occasions. In the field, officers carry a revolver or an automatic pistol for side-arm; and in actual fighting they may or may not use a rifle, according to circumstances.

Q.—How can a young man get into West Point?

A.—Up to 1915 every applicant for admission to West Point had to stand physical and mental examinations. Since 1915 a candidate may be admitted without mental examination on presentation of a certificate showing adequate preparatory training.

Each Congressman has the naming of two, under the last law providing that two are to be appointed from each congressional district, two from each Territory, four from each State at large, and 80 from the United States at large. The President is authorized to appoint cadets from among the enlisted men of the United States Army and the National Guard, the total number so selected not to exceed 180 at any one time.

Q.—Just what is West Point?

A.—It is the government training school for the officers of the Regular Army. The United States Military Academy at West Point was established by act of Congress in 1802. In 1843 Congress provided that the corps of cadets at the academy should consist of one from each congressional district, one from each Territory, one from the District of Columbia, and ten from the United States at large, all to be appointed by the President of the United States. Under this plan, as expanded from time to time, the number of authorized cadetships in 1915 was 706, but in that year 79 cadetships were unfilled. The act of May 4, 1916, authorizes an increase of cadetships to 1,332, and provides that the increase shall take place in four annual increments as nearly equal as practicable.

Q.—What officers wear spurs?

A.—All those entitled to a mount wear spurs.

Q.—What is a soldier's equipment?

A.—Besides his extra clothing a soldier carries a blanket, a rubber poncho, a canteen, a mess kit, including meat can, knife, fork, and spoon, a cup, toilet articles, a first-aid package, and some minor belongings.

One of the most useful pieces is one-half of a shelter tent, with rope and pins. The shelter tent is said to be a French invention which was introduced into the American Army during the Civil War. In the Army it is often called a "dog tent," because of its shape and small size. Two men can combine their halves and set up a shelter tent in a few minutes. While it cannot be described as roomy, it is just what its name implies, a "shelter" from wind and rain. It is used only in temporary camps.

Each soldier in a modern army carries with him sufficient food, clothing, shelter, fighting arms, and ammunition to take care of himself for a short period in case he should be separated from his comrades.

Q.—What weight must an American infantryman carry?

A.—The total weight of his load, in addition to the clothes he wears, is 50 to 70 pounds. The number of articles is surprisingly large. They are so devised, however, that by ingenious methods of packing and adjusting they can all be carried with the least possible effort. This load is much lighter than that of the Germans and the French. It is probably the lightest weight equipment in any army.

Q.—How many cartridges does a soldier carry?

A.—The amount of ammunition which an American infantryman carries into battle is usually 220 rounds. In an advanced firing position, where it is difficult to bring up reserves of ammunition, it is necessary to shoot with care not to waste cartridges.

Q.—Do all soldiers carry entrenching outfits?

A.—All infantrymen do. In modern warfare the intrenching tool is a positively vital part of fighting equipment. The eight men in each squad carry 8 tools: 4 shovels, 2 pick mattocks, 1 polo or hand ax, and 1 wire cutter. In ordinary soil they can quickly throw up a shallow trench which will protect to a great extent from the enemy's fire. After a trench has once been started, it can be deepened and extended, even in the face of the enemy, without the soldier exposing himself to direct fire.

Q.—What is the soldier's first work in the morning?

A.—The soldier must get up about 6 o'clock, a little earlier in summer and a little later in winter. The buglers sound the call known as reveille. The men dress and fall in.

The first thing is military drill which consists of "setting-up exercises," and occupies the first few minutes of the day. They consist of certain exercises of the head, arms, trunk, and legs, designed not merely to develop muscles but also to increase skill, control of the body, and self-reliance.

Then comes "washing up" and breakfast. Usually breakfast is followed by a half-hour for cleaning the barracks and bunks and putting clothing and bedding in order. Frequently the company commander will inspect the barracks immediately to make sure that every man has attended to his part of the work. There is then often some time which the soldier uses for attending to his personal needs, tidying up his clothing, and the like.

The remaining two or three hours of the morning are likely to be spent in drill, at first in "close order" and later in "extended order" also. During the drill there are numerous short periods of rest.

In most camps guard mounting comes about noon. This consists of relieving the men who have been guarding the camp and turning over this duty to new men. Each soldier mounts guard not oftener than once a week, unless he is ordered to double duty as punishment.

Q.—Are soldiers in camp kept busy all day?

A.—They are, in training camps and in garrison. After guard mounting the men go to dinner, which comes at 12 o'clock. At least one hour is always allowed for dinner and rest.

During the afternoons the work is varied to include additional setting-up exercises and other drills, target practice and bayonet exercises. About 5 o'clock comes the evening parade and "retreat," when the flag is lowered or furled for the night. The band plays "The Star Spangled Banner," while all officers and soldiers stand at attention.

Supper comes between 5 and 6 o'clock and is followed by a period of rest. Taps are sounded by 10 o'clock. This is the signal to put out all lights, retire, and keep quiet.

SERVICE ARM AND RANK IN THE ARMY.

U.S. U.S.R.

Regular Army National Army Reserve Corps

The above letters, plain for officers and enlisted men, dress uniform; as buttons for enlisted men, service uniform; are worn on collar of coat, or on the collar of the shirt if the coat is not worn:

The arms of the service are indicated by service hat cords and by collar insignia.

HAT CORDS.

GENERAL OFFICERS.....Gold.
ALL OTHER OFFICERS.....Gold and black.

ENLISTED MEN
Infantry.....Light blue
Cavalry.....Yellow

ENLISTED MEN
Artillery (F. and C.).....Scarlet
Medical Department.....Maroon

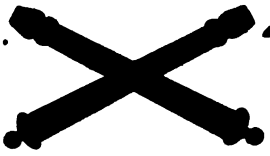
ENLISTED MEN
Quartermaster Corps.....Buff.
Corps of Engineers.....Scarlet and white.

ENLISTED MEN
Ordnance Department.....Black and scarlet.
Signal Corps.....Orange and white.

COLLAR INSIGNIA.

Plain for officers and enlisted dress uniform. Buttons enlisted service uniform.

Infantry



Field Artillery

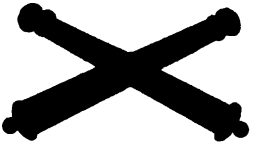
Medical Department

Judge Advocate General's Department

Quartermaster General's Department

Ordnance Department

Cavalry



Coast Artillery

Adjutant General's Department

Inspector General's Department

Corps of Engineers

Signal Corps

COMMISSIONED OFFICERS —INSIGNIA ON SHOULDER

General
Coat of arms of the United States and two silver stars.

Lieutenant General
One large silver star and two small silver stars.

Major General
Two silver stars.

Brigadier General
One silver star.

Colonel
Silver spread eagle.

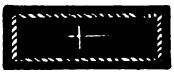
Lieutenant Colonel
A silver leaf.

Major
A gold leaf.

Captain
Two silver bars.

First Lieutenant
One silver bar.

Second Lieutenant
No loop insignia.



Chaplain
Latin cross.

CHEVRONS AND SPECIALTY MARKS

The more frequent Chevrons, only are given.
The colors of the hat cords are used in the chevrons.

First Sergeant

Sergeant

Corporal

Private, 1st Class.
Insignia of color of arm of service.

Chief Mechanic

Gunner

Electrician

Mechanic

Bandsman

Cook

Master Electrician

Casemate Electrician Coast Artillery

Engineers Coast Artillery

Observers (First Class) Plotter Coast Artillery

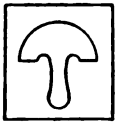
Gun Commander

Gunners First Class Coast Artillery

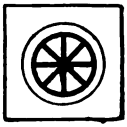
Master Gunner

Figure of Merit Coast Artillery

Mechanic Farrier



Mechanic Saddler



Wagoner

Bugler

Fireman

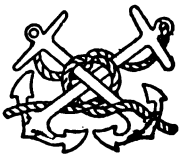
UNITED STATES NAVY

CAP DEVICES

Marines

Navy
Commissioned Officer

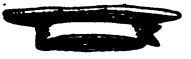
Navy
Warrant Officer



Navy
Chief Petty Officer

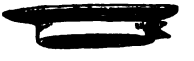
ENLISTED MEN

Navy



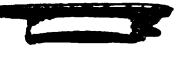
On ribbon
U.S.S. AND NAME OF VESSEL

Naval Militia



On ribbon
NAVAL MILITIA

Naval Reserve



On ribbon
NAVAL RESERVE FORCE

SERVICE COAT COLLAR DEVICES—NAVY

(Also used on shoulder devices for ranks through Commodore.
(Marines show rank on shoulder loop as in Army.)

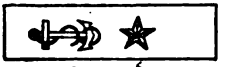
LINE OFFICERS

Admiral of the Navy

Admiral

Vice Admiral

Rear Admiral



Commodore

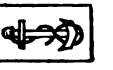
Captain

Commander

Lieutenant Commander

Lieutenant

Lieutenant Junior Grade



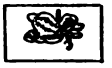
Ensign

STAFF OFFICERS

Same as equal rank of line officers, but corps devices appear in place of anchors

CORPS DEVICES

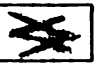
Medical



Pay

Prof. Math.

Naval Constructor



Civil Engineer

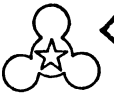
Dental Officer

Chaplain

CHIEF WARRANT OFFICERS, WARRANT OFFICERS, MATES

Ch. Boatswain
Boatswain

Ch. Gunner
Gunner



Ch. Machinist
Machinist

Ch. Carpenter
Carpenter

Ch. Sailmaker
Sailmaker

Ch. Pharmacist
Pharmacist

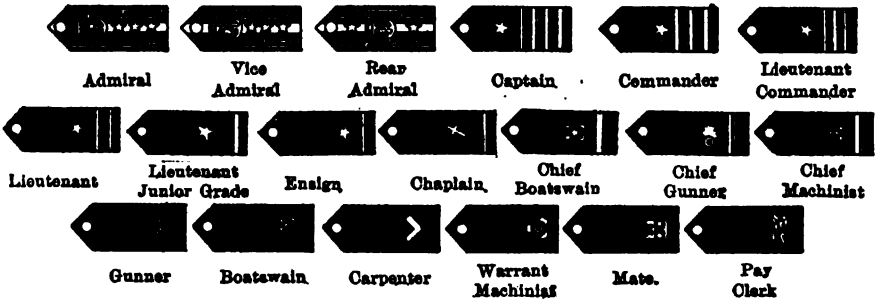
Chief Pay Clerk
Paymaster's Clerk

Midshipman

Mate

OFFICERS' SHOULDER MARKS

(Worn with White Summer Service Uniform)

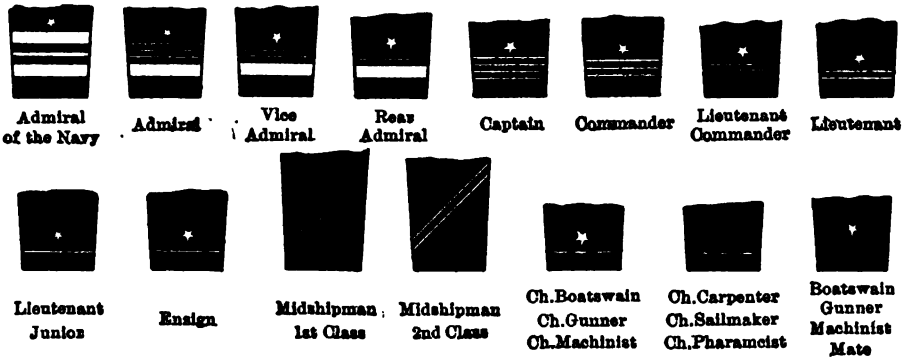


SLEEVE MARKS OF COMMISSIONED AND WARRANT OFFICERS——NAVY.

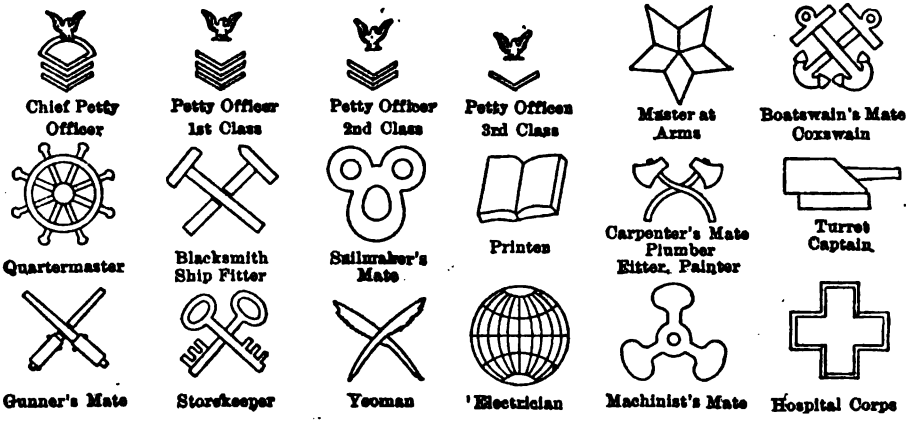
Staff officers same stripes, but instead of stars, corps colors are used with stripes.
Corps colors: Medical, maroon; Pay, white; Prof. Math., olive green; Civil Eng., blue; Med. Res., crimson; Dental, orange.

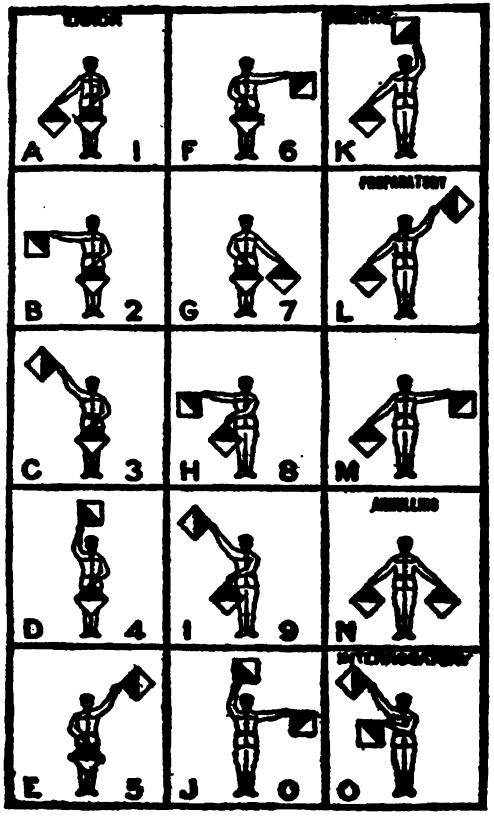
LINE OFFICERS.

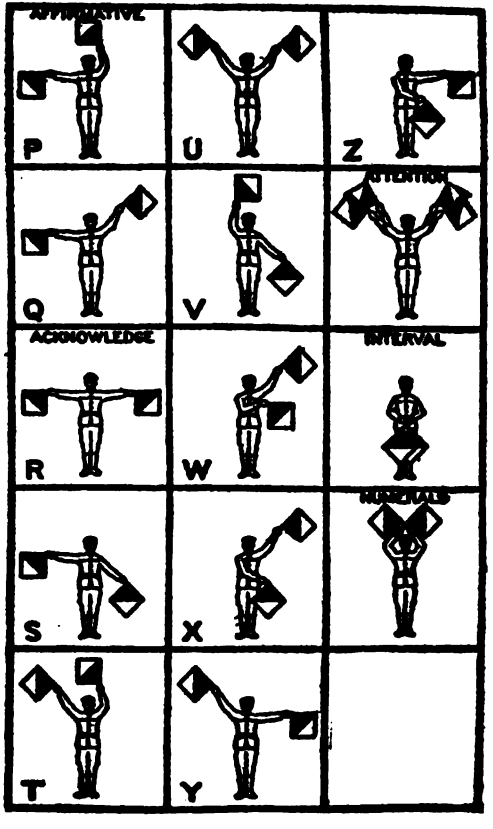
(Also used on shoulder devices for ranks below Commodore)



RATINGS AND A FEW SPECIALTY MARKS——NAVY







HOW LETTERS AND NUMBERS ARE TELEGRAPHED BY FLAG SIGNALLING

IDENTIFICATION OF FIGHTING MEN

Q.—How are our soldiers identified?

A.—A "Statistical Division" with a foreign branch in Paris takes care of this. Every man in the Army, whether officer or private, is indexed by name, and the records filed in alphabetical order for immediate reference, should the names appear either in Army orders or casualty lists. With the description of each soldier is given the name of his next of kin with emergency address.

Each soldier wears about his neck and underneath his clothing a small tag giving his name and company. The foreign branch of the Statistical Division has the fighting forces listed by regiments, as well as alphabetically. Whenever the names of soldiers figure in official dispatches, duplicate sets of records kept at Washington will afford quick reference.

Q.—How are our sailors identified?

A.—Every officer and enlisted man in the United States Navy wears a metal identification tag which bears the wearer's name, the date of his birth and enlistment, and, in the case of an officer, his rank and date of appointment. On the other side is etched the finger print of his right index finger. This is a part of what naval officers regard as the best system of identification known, superior to that in use in European armies and navies.

Q.—What is the identification tag?

A.—The identification tag consists of an oval plate of monel metal 1.25 by 1.50 inches, perforated at one end and suspended from the neck by a monel wire encased in a cotton sleeve. A copy of each finger print on paper is supplied to the Bureau of Navigation, Navy Department, where it is filed in the identification section, this particular work being in charge of J. H. Taylor, finger-print expert, who devised the tag adopted.

Q.—What is monel metal?

A.—Monel is the alloy used for battleship propellers. It was chosen in preference to brass or any other metal because it is unaffected by heat, not melting until it has reached a temperature of 2,480 degrees Fahrenheit. It will not corrode, and is not affected by salt water. On each ship and at each naval station a hospital-corps officer has charge of the preparation of the tags.

Q.—How are finger-prints taken?

A.—The finger-print is taken in ink on the metal. The name and dates are then written on the tag, which is sprinkled with powdered asphaltum and held over an alcohol lamp until the asphaltum melts into the ink. The tag is then placed for an hour in a nitric-acid bath, which etches the finger-print and inscription on the metal.

Q.—What is the chance of mistakes?

A.—There is not one chance in 65,000,000, the finger-print experts estimate, of a mistake in identification, as there are 65 characteristics in each finger and only one chance in 1,000,000 of the fingers of any two persons having the same characteristics.

Q.—Are our soldiers not numbered, also?

A.—The War Department has decided to assign a number to each enlisted man in the armies of the U. S. These numbers (beginning at No. 1 and continuing without limit and without alphabetical prefix or affix) will be stamped on the metal identification tags now worn by the soldiers.

Q.—How does France tag her soldiers?

A.—France uses a German-silver identification tag for each soldier. It was intended to be worn on a string about the neck and hidden under the shirt, but the majority of "poilus" prefer to wear the tag on a chain about the wrist. In 1915 it was decided to provide two tags, so that for identification purpose, one was to be removed by the authorities and the other was to remain on the body for future identification.

Q.—Are the British tagged?

A.—The British Tommy, at the beginning of the war, wore a circular aluminum tag hanging on a string about his neck,

containing his draft number, initials, name, regiment and religion. Owing to the scarcity of aluminum, it was decided in November, 1916, to adopt a new system. It consists of two tags, one octagonal and red, the other round and green, and suspended from the first. In case of death, the green tag is removed and the red one left for future identification.

The Belgians, in 1915, adopted the French model, fastened to the wrist by a chain bracelet.

Q.—What is the Italian system?

A.—The Italian identification tag (adopted in 1915) consists of an ornate book-like locket, containing a folded paper record suspended on a string around the neck. This record gives the wearer's full name, military class, recruiting district, names of parents, residence of immediate family, regiment, vaccination records and wounds.

The Serbian soldier, in the beginning of the war, used an identification tag which was simply a metal plate sewed on the inside of his tunic. This method has now been replaced by the French identification tag.

Q.—Were Russian soldiers tagged?

A.—With the exception of those Russians who fought in France, no identification tags were provided for the Russian soldiers. Hundreds of thousands of fallen Russians, therefore, never have been identified, and untold misery and countless legal tangles have ensued because Russia failed to provide these inexpensive tags.

Q.—When did Germany first tag soldiers?

A.—In 1870, in the Franco-Prussian War. Germany entered the present war with the same tag that it had used then. This tag contained the numbers of the army corps, the regiment, the company and the draft. It was worn on a string around the neck. Sometimes a leather pouch protected it.

Q.—Do the Germans still use the same tag?

A.—No. In June, 1915, a more complete tag of larger dimensions and oval in shape was adopted. It carried the names, residence, dates of birth, mobilization data, and a number of numerals and letters.

In November, 1916, still another model was adopted by the German Army. It was even larger than the preceding one, and made in a split form. The two halves, one the duplicate of the other, are separated by a serrated line, which makes it easy to detach one half of the identification tag, while the other half remains on the body of the fallen soldier.

The Turks use a round tag of metal carrying the name, first name, and regimental number of the soldier, while the Austrians use a locket similar to that of the Italians. This is worn on a string which the soldier wears around his neck.

Q.—How are the Chinese soldiers drafted and tagged?

A.—They are first put through a thorough physical examination by the British or French surgeon—an event in the Chinaman's life, who, probably, has never seen a European physician before.

As all Chinese look alike to the European officers who are to control him later, they simply must have a ready and sure means of identification. A steel bracelet with his number engraved upon it is marked with other data about the soldier in the official records. This bracelet is riveted about the owner's wrist, and none other than a blacksmith can remove it.

His queue is next shaved off by a barber (for the sum of eight cents), and the celestial is treated to the surprise of his life. He gets a bath, and a brand-new suit of soldier clothes. He is ready then to go aboard the transport with all his belongings in a huge bundle on his back.

THE PRISONER OF WAR

Q.—Did the Germans intern British civilian subjects before the British interned Germans?

A.—They interned them afterward. November 8, 1914, Ambassador Gerard wrote from Berlin to Ambassador Page in London, saying that German opinion had been inflamed by the British procedure of wholesale internment. Mr. Gerard wrote: "The (German) order for the general internment of British males between 17 and 55, which went into effect on the 6th inst., was occasioned by the pressure of public opinion. Up to the 6th, considerable liberty of movement had been allowed to British subjects in Germany, and many petitions were received from them setting forth the favorable conditions under which they were allowed to live and to carry on their business, and urging the similar treatment of German subjects in England."

Q.—Did the Germans put British, Russian and French prisoners in separate camps?

A.—No. The American Embassy frequently handed the German Government the British protests against putting all the nationalities and races together, but the Germans responded that they were all Allies and, therefore, had no right to demand separation.

The American inspectors held that this was unjust, and subjected the Englishmen to unnecessary discomfort and humiliation, but there was no change.

Q.—Why has Germany refused to exchange prisoners?

A.—Apparently for purely economical and strategical reasons. In the first place, the Germans calculated that the comparatively few Germans who were in British and French hands would not be a very important asset to the big German armies, but that the same number of British and French would be a very valuable asset, indeed, to those armies, which needed men badly in the earlier years of the war.

In the second place, they knew that the British labor unions opposed the use of German prisoners of war in industrial labor, whereas in Germany there was no such obstacle to utilizing the labor of prisoners of war, thus giving a clear economic advantage to Germany.

In the third place, British and, in part, French prisoners of war got a great deal of food from those countries. If these men were exchanged, the returned Germans would have to be fed at home, and thus would make that much more drain on an already limited food-supply.

Q.—Is a prisoner of war a convict?

A.—His status is absolutely and specifically different from that of a convict. A soldier who is captured in honorable warfare is entitled to treatment that entails neither stigma nor avoidable hardship.

Theoretically, the captor has the right only to imprison him and hold him safe so that he shall not become a menace. In practice, however, the belligerents erect so many safeguards and regulations that the quality of treatment ranges widely, according to the character of those in command of the various camps.

A prisoner of war, for instance, remains a man who must submit to all military regulations, and who is as subject to discipline and military law as if he were in his own army. A stern commander who is severe with his own men naturally would be a pretty harsh commander of a prisoner camp.

Q.—Were outsiders ever allowed to visit German war-prisoner camps?

A.—The American Embassy made regular and stated inspections of all the camps in Germany, under arrangement with the German Government. In this duty the Americans did not represent the United States. They represented Great Britain, whose interests the Americans had taken over when war began. Everything was inspected, the men were questioned, and full detailed reports were made out.

Q.—Were the prison camps in Germany as bad as the British alleged?

A.—Some of the German camps, as is proved by the very exact and carefully considered report of Professor Daniel J. McCarthy, who conducted the work of inspection for the American Embassy, were frightfully bad—not merely bad from a sanitary and physical point of view, but equally bad because of the bru-

tality of the officers and soldiers in charge. Others were excellent.

Thus, such camps as Friedrichsfeld, Soltau, Parchim, Dulmen, Wahn, Wunsdorf, and many others, were praised by him as very good indeed. The camps of Minden, Limburg, Wittenberg, Schneidemuhl, Langensalzen, etc., were very bad—"the difference between heaven, relatively, and hell, absolutely," as Dr. McCarthy put it.

He added that it was difficult to estimate the exact proportions of good and bad camps, and that "one might say that taking the problem as a whole, and for the majority of the camps, it was fairly well administered." This judgment, however, had to be qualified because of the many less satisfactory aspects presented by the huge problem of the many thousand scattered working camps.

Q.—What were the differences between the various camps?

A.—In the best type of concentration, or "parent" camp, the prisoners were organized on a military basis under their own noncommissioned officers, who were responsible for discipline, behavior, and clothing and, in some cases, were in charge of the kitchen as well. In the majority of camps, however, such a complete organization was not permitted; in many camps a partial organization was made, with some authority for the noncommissioned officers; in others the prisoners were treated simply as criminals, without any rights, and were guarded at the point of the bayonet by men who were allowed to use almost any degree of brutality in enforcing their commands.

Q.—To what was the difference in camps due?

A.—The fact that the army corps commander was practically supreme, and that he handed over the complete charge of the prison camp to the camp commandant, who was often of the same rank as himself, gave opportunity for very good treatment, as it gave freedom for very bad, of prisoners of war. Dr. McCarthy quotes the saying that was general throughout Germany, "Everything depends on the commandant." To a great extent, he says, that was literally true.

Q.—What was Dr. McCarthy's general verdict on the German prison camps?

A.—There were so many various aspects that he could not make a summing-up that would be comprehensive. He says that he found prisons appallingly bad, and he found prisons really good; commandants and guards who were brutal, and others who were considerate, kind, and intelligent. Some working camps were bad, some satisfactory.

As an outstanding example of a bad camp, Dr. McCarthy describes that at Minden, which was one of the worst in Germany, and whose conditions he found not only bad but "inexcusable."

One of the best of the "parent" camps was that at Friedrichsfeld, which had been remodeled, Dr. McCarthy explains, "so as to make it very comfortable. There was a splendid organization of the camp and every effort was being made to make the men comfortable, guard their health, give them mental and physical relaxation, and to refit them for more useful work in the future."

Q.—How large were the German prison camps?

A.—Most camps were built to hold from ten to twelve thousand men, but some were much larger. The big camp at Parchim held forty thousand men in 1916.

Q.—Did a big force guard the big number of prisoners?

A.—The German practice was to have a guard about one-tenth in strength of the number of prisoners. This guard consisted usually of men who had been in the army, but were too old for active service, or else of young men physically unfit for service in the field.

Barbed wire divided most of the camps into blocks of buildings, and thus prevented any concerted action by the whole number of prisoners, even if there had not been constant watchfulness. In addition, every prison camp was overlooked by many towers with platforms armed with medium-caliber cannon. Thus the prisoners were quite helpless.

Q.—How many prison camps are there in Germany?

A.—About 150, counting in big and little. There were 105 big camps for prisoners of war alone in 1916. In addition to these, which contained the enlisted men and noncommissioned officers, there were many smaller camps for officers. Then there were three great camps for interned civilians, and there was at least one camp for reserve officers. These were only the actual prison or concentration camps.

Q.—Were these prison camps the only ones in Germany?

A.—No. Those were only the concentration or parent camps. As the prisoners of war were assigned to labor, they went to so-called working camps—camps attached to mines, factories, reclamation projects, etc. In one district alone there were 18,000 of these working camps at the period when the American Embassy made regular inspections.

Q.—Did prisoners work with enough willingness to make it worth while?

A.—The tedium of prison life made men want to work. In addition, most of them were employed in agricultural labor, and the prisoners soon discovered that the rural population was inclined to treat them well.

As Professor McCarthy reported: "The distinction between the German people and the German Government was here very manifest. The prisoner of war, working in the fields with his employer, eating at the same table and often housed in the same house, lost the character of a hated enemy—the British and French prisoners were, as a rule, popular with their farmer employers and their families and, when well treated, made excellent workmen. The prisoner rarely attempted to escape, and rarely requested to be returned to the parent camp."

Speaking of 1916, Dr. McCarthy said that the efficiency of war-prisoners in agricultural work reached certainly 80 per cent. It was less in industry, but, in a general way, the efficiency throughout appeared to range between 50 and 75 per cent.

Q.—Who keeps prison camps clean? The captor Government?

A.—No. It is the duty of the prisoners of war to keep their camps clean as the daily routine of their duty. Regulations prescribe what they shall do and how they shall do it, just as if they were in their own army. They must also do any other work around the camp, such as road-making, erecting fences and barbed-wire lines, etc.

Q.—How are prisoners punished in a prison camp?

A.—Prisoners of war who disobey orders or commit offenses lay themselves liable to trial, and they may be punished according to the regulations and laws of the country that holds them. Such punishment in serious cases such as mutiny, assaulting guards or assaulting fellow-prisoners, may go even so far as death. Other serious offenses may be punished by terms of imprisonment. The offender then ceases to be a prisoner of war, and becomes a convict.

Q.—Can war-prisoners be legally compelled to work?

A.—Yes. The Hague Convention of 1899 (signed by Great Britain and Germany) says: "The State may utilize the labor of prisoners of war according to their rank and aptitude. These tasks shall not be excessive, and shall have nothing to do with military operations."

Prisoners may be authorized to work for the public service, for private persons, or on their own account.

Work done for the State must be paid according to the tariffs in force for soldiers of the national army employed in similar tasks.

When the work is for other branches of the public service or for private persons, the conditions must be settled in agreement with the military authorities.

The wages of the prisoners shall go towards improving their position, and the balance shall be paid them at the time of their release, after deducting the cost of their maintenance.

Q.—What happens to a prisoner who refuses to work?

A.—Article 8 of the Hague Convention says:

"Prisoners of war shall be subject to the laws in the army of the State into whose hands they have fallen. Any act of insubordination warrants the adoption, as regards them, of such measures of severity as may be necessary."

Q.—Can they be set to forced labor?

A.—Yes. They may be set to forced labor, the only big condition being that they must not be set to work directly at military labor such as munition-making, etc.

Q.—Did the Germans force prisoners to work on munitions?

A.—The American Embassy inspectors found that there was little of this. There was, however, much contention between prisoners and the authorities as to what was military labor, in the sense of the Hague Conventions.

Q.—Where did Serbia put her 60,000 Austrian prisoners?

A.—It was reported when von Mackensen began his drive from Belgrade that all the Austrian prisoners had been removed to Corsica, but, in view of the immense difficulty the Serbians themselves experienced in getting across the Albanian Mountains, it is pretty safe to assume that they took few, if any, prisoners away with them. As these Austrians, practically unguarded, were scattered all over Serbia, it is probable that most of them rejoined the Austrian Army after the invasion.

Q.—Are German prisoners being used as laborers in England?

A.—According to the latest statements in the House of Commons, there are 84,000 German prisoners in British hands. A good number of these are used in road-making and quarrying. Recently the Bucklow Union Committee of the Cheshire War Agricultural Committee applied for prisoners of war for service on the land. Experienced men were to be paid £1 ($5) a week, men without experience 15s. ($3.75). Others are employed in making mail bags, being paid 6d (12 cents) a bag.

Some of the civilian prisoners, also, are engaged in making mail bags, others are employed in quarrying, and it is planned to employ them in clearing forest areas in the near future.

Q.—Did the German prisoners refuse to work?

A.—It was announced in the House of Commons that German prisoners of war had refused to continue quarry work unless they received increased pay and rations. It was further stated, however, that disciplinary action having been taken, the prisoners resumed work.

In the annual reports of several of the larger coal and iron companies reference is made to the fact that German prisoners are being used. In one of these, with headquarters at Middlesborough, between three hundred and four hundred German prisoners are utilized, and the Chairman of Directors stated: "Our management are thoroughly satisfied with the experiment, and the men themselves seem, on the whole, to prefer regular employment with the allowance they can earn rather than the enforced idleness of a prisoners' camp. During the past month, however, at one of our quarries, they struck work, but steps being promptly taken to reduce the rations seem to have brought them to their senses, and I understand most are back at work again."

Q.—What British representatives attended the Anglo-German Hague Conference on prisoners of war?

A.—Six delegates from Great Britain with Sir Robert Younger for chairman and Lord Newton as next in rank. One of the remaining four was Mrs. Darley Livingstone, the first woman to sit in a diplomatic negotiation between nations. She is an American, married to a British officer, and has been member and honorary secretary of the Government Committee (English) on the Treatment of British Prisoners by the Enemy. She is said to have more information and knowledge on the subject of British prisoners of war in all its details than any other person in the empire.

Q.—How many civilians were interned?

A.—There were at the end of May, 1917, 3,600 British civilians interned in German prison camps, and 32,274 German civilians interned in British camps.

Q.—How many prisoners of war are there in Germany?

A.—August 1, 1916, the German Government gave out the following official figures:

	Officers.	Men.
French	5,047	348,731
Russian	9,019	1,202,871
Belgian	656	41,751
British	947	29,956
Serbian	....	22,914

This made a total of 1,646,223, exclusive of the 15,669 officers, up to that time, and it appears to have been considered correct by the American representatives who visited the war-prisons for the British Government.

Q.—How many prisoners have the Germans taken since?

A.—Lord Newton, Minister in charge of prisoners in Great Britain, stated on February 6, 1917, that he estimated the Germans held 1,500,000 Russians, 400,000 French, 50,000 Belgians, and 35,000 British. According to that, the Germans would have captured 300,000 Russians, 44,000 French, 8,000 Belgians, and 4,000 British between August, 1916, and February, 1917.

Q.—What was the British figure at the end of 1917?

A.—The British War Office, on Dec. 29, 1917, announced that the number of British prisoners held by the enemy, including those in Switzerland, totaled 46,712. The prisoners include members of the regular army, territorial forces, Royal Navy and naval division, held in the following countries: In Germany, 43,699; in Turkey, 2,299; in Bulgaria, 628; and in Austria, 86. There are 2,257 officers and 44,455 men.

This statement, compared with Lord Newton's figures of February, 1917, would indicate that between those dates the Germans had taken about 8,000 more men on the western front.

Q.—What was the total number of war-prisoners after two years of war?

A.—It seems to have totaled about 4,175,000 men, taking all armies together. Of these, the Central Powers had by far the most, probably holding at least 1,700,000 more men than the Allies—the big difference being due largely to their great captures of Russians.

Q.—What prisoners did the Allies hold in 1917?

A.—The Russians claim to have taken prisoner some 1,500,000 Austrians and Germans, but they never gave exact figures. The total German losses in prisoners and missing, according to their statement of last August, was 400,000. It is assumed that the French held something like 150,000. The British had 58,000, and the Russians presumably had the rest. The Italians claimed to have captured about 40,000 Austrians. If we add these approximate figures together we get the following result:

In England	58,000
In France	150,000
In Italy	40,000
In Russia	1,000,000
Total	1,248,000

Q.—What prisoners did Germany's allies hold in 1916?

A.—According to the German report, after two years' war the Austrians held 781,566 Russians. They soon added to that total, and it would be perfectly safe to put it down as 800,000; if we do this, and include the Italians, we get the following totals:

In Germany (Lord Newton's estimate)		1,985,000
In Austria—Russians	800,000	
Italians	50,000	
Serbians	40,000	
		890,000
In Bulgaria		38,000
In Turkey		14,000
Total		2,927,000

Q.—How many prisoners had the Austrians in 1918?

A.—According to the German official reports, the Austrians had 890,000 prisoners in 1916. They have, of course, added heavily to that total since then. There has been the big drive into Italy, which added heavily to the number of Italian prisoners and, after that, the drive through the Ukraine. It may be assumed that the Austrians hold well over 1,000,000 prisoners.

Q.—Where did Turkey get her prisoners?

A.—Turkey has, among others, all of General Townshend's army, which surrendered at Kut near Bagdad. Few prisoners were taken at Gallipoli.

Q.—What was the fate of Americans taken in the trench raids in November?

A.—In February, 1918, six of the twelve missing men were reported as being prisoners in the German prison camp of Tuchel, West Prussia. The report showed that with these six were two others, who had been captured in a later raid.

CASUALTIES OF WAR

Q.—Are the losses in this war really greater than ever before?

A.—That was the general belief, and the news dispatches told almost daily of appalling numbers of dead after even a small engagement. However, in 1917, the Committee on Public Information (Washington) made the following statement:

"There is probably little basis for the idea that the number of casualties in this war is any greater, in proportion to the number of men engaged, than in previous wars. In the French Army during the last six months of 1916 (which included three big offensives), the total losses in killed, wounded, and prisoners are officially reported to have been only 1.28 per cent of the French forces under arms."

Secretary of War Baker said, on Nov. 10, 1917:

"Up to about June 1, the losses of the British expeditionary forces in deaths in action and deaths from wounds were about 7 per cent of the total of all men sent to France since the beginning of the war. It may be added that the ratio of losses of this character to-day, because of improved tactics and the swiftly mounting Allied superiority in artillery, is less than seven to every hundred men."

Q.—How did the various Governments report their losses?

A.—Each Government organized a big staff of accountants who received the detailed lists of dead and wounded from the front, arranged them, and sent official notifications to the nearest of kin. Thus, while every family was fully and promptly informed of any of its members dead or wounded, the information, being scattered in detail throughout the whole country, was of no use to the enemy, for nobody could gather all the individual reports, of course.

Q.—Have the nations at war tried to hide their total casualties?

A.—Yes and no. They have tried systematically to hide them from their enemies, of course. They have also tried in various ways not to dismay their own people by too sudden or drastic a statement of aggregate losses, especially after heavy engagements. For this purpose they have tried many methods and ways of presenting the facts in what they deemed the most advisable form. In consequence, even the most careful statistician with the best accumulations of official statements before him, finds that it is impossible to give accurate and final estimates of the total losses in this war.

Q.—Did the British Government not report its aggregate losses?

A.—Yes. It issued weekly and monthly lists, and then made it a regular thing to issue a weekly list giving in total the number of officers and men killed, wounded or missing.

Q.—How did the outer world get reports of the German losses?

A.—The Germans posted printed local lists in all the town halls, post-offices, and other places where the public could see them and look for the names of friends or kindred. It was easy enough to ascertain the lengths of the columns and, by counting the names in one, to estimate the whole number at a glance. As the country was full of neutrals in the early part of the war, this information went out pretty freely. After some time, however, it was discovered that the German system of army corps, divisions, etc., caused many duplications, the same name being given in different lists in different parts of the country. However, with estimates and the figures given from time to time by the Government, a fairly accurate estimate was reached.

Q.—Have the French made their losses public?

A.—No. The French have maintained consistently that it would give the Germans important information, and in March, 1918, they represented to General Pershing that the American custom of making public full details of names, residences, etc., of killed and wounded was dangerous. General Peyton C. March, acting Chief of Staff in Washington, in discussing the French attitude, repeated that the French Government has never issued a casualty list of any kind since the beginning of the war. The French War Office in Paris transmits the name of every man killed or wounded to the mayor of the town from which he came, and this official notifies the family.

Q.—Can a fairly close estimate of the total killed and wounded be made?

A.—Yes. After checking and re-checking many dozen estimates, and testing the reports and estimates of each side against those of the other side, we find that we can get figures that approximate correctness pretty well, so far as the Germans, British and French are concerned.

Q.—What are these total figures of killed?

A.—The figures that appear the most nearly correct show the following totals for the whole war up to about October, 1917: German killed, 1,500,000; French killed, 1,057,000; British killed, 1,159,000, or a total of 3,716,000 dead for these three nations alone.

Q.—How many were lost by Russians, Serbs, etc.?

A.—Their figures are wildly conflicting. It is impossible, too, to give accurate figures of Italian losses.

Q.—Were not hundreds of thousands killed in single engagements?

A.—Dispatches hot from a scene of war are almost always "subject to correction." Generally the correction has to be pretty radical. During the Russo-Japanese War, for instance, a well-known newspaper, which was enthusiastically in favor of Russia, announced such killings of Japanese in each of the early battles, that long before the war was ended the entire Japanese army had been utterly destroyed. As the Japanese subsequently took Port Arthur, and fought the Battle of Mukden, an unkind commentator remarked that it must have been done by Japanese ghosts.

Q.—What was the total of wounded in the whole war?

A.—Up to October, 1917, the total wounded appear to have been: German, 3,100,000; French, 3,900,000; British, 2,900,000—or a total of 9,900,000 men for the three big nations alone.

Q.—Has there been an estimate of the wounded of all nations?

A.—Yes. A report made to Congress in February, 1918, said:

"There are at present approximately 13,000,000 wounded and crippled soldiers in the belligerent countries of Europe."

Q.—What were the German official figures?

A.—The casualties reported in the German official lists were, to the end of June, 1917, as follows:

Killed and died from wounds	1,032,800
Died from sickness	72,960
Prisoners	316,506
Missing	275,460
Severely wounded	590,883
Wounded	315,239
Wounded, but remaining in service	263,774
Slightly wounded	1,655,685
Total	4,523,307

Q.—How did their opponents figure the German losses?

A.—Almost exactly the same. The French Government made an estimate that in September, 1917, Germany had 6,100,000 men in military service on the front lines or behind them; had lost as killed, disabled, or prisoners, 4,000,000; and had in hospitals 500,000 more, making a grand total of 10,600,000 men who have been used in war. According to the same estimate, Germany has had 14,000,000 men available since 1914 and including the class of 1920 (now in their seventeenth year). In the 3,400,000 men of military age not yet in the army are included those physically unfit, and those indispensable to her industries.

Q.—Has no reliable estimate been made of total losses for all the nations?

A.—No. It is extremely difficult to gain anything like a clear idea from the confused and very contradictory reports that were made by the Russian, Austrian, Serbian, Bulgarian, and Turkish Governments. That the Russian losses from death in battle, wounds and disease were enormous, we know. We know, too, that the Austrian losses have been exceedingly heavy, but we do not know how nearly they approximate to the French. It seems reasonably well established that they are less than were the Russian, and that they must be far less than the German losses, who fought on many fronts.

Arthur Henderson, while a member of the British War Cabinet, said that the total losses to both sides in killed, wounded and missing were 46 million.

Q.—What proportion of wounded men die?

A.—Modern surgery has so progressed that only about eight per cent of the wounded fail to survive. Of the remaining 92 per cent, about 20 per cent are more or less permanently disabled. The rest are able to return to the firing line. Thus, about 72 per cent of the wounded recover.

Q.—Is it true that more than ninety per cent of the German wounded recover and return to the front?

A.—The German military authorities declare that 89 per cent return to duty. The Committee on Public Information, in its "Home-Reading Course for American Citizen Soldiers," says:

"Even in the early months of the war it was announced that of the wounded actually treated in French hospitals, 54.5 per cent were returned to duty within a short time; 24.5 per cent were sent home to complete recovery, and later returned to duty; 17 per cent at the time of making the report were still in hospitals, with the probability of complete recovery; 1.5 per cent were unfit for further service; 2.5 per cent had died from the effects of their wounds."

This would make 79 per cent of the wounded returning to duty, and, adding the 17 per cent who were listed as probably sure to recover, it would make 96 per cent.

However, it is extremely unlikely that this great percentage can all return to the fighting work known as "active duty." A big proportion must, no doubt, be assigned to easier work, behind the lines, guarding communications, etc.

Q.—What was the ratio of killed in the third year of war?

A.—Much less than it had been in the earlier periods. In March, 1918, a United States Government report said:

"It appears that the killed in action and died of wounds have not exceeded one-fifth of the total casualties. Approximately four-fifths survive. Some among these recover completely, developing 100 per cent of their former vocational efficiency; some recover partial efficiency in their old employment; some are incapacitated totally for their old employment, but are capable of greater or less efficiency in other employments, provided they get the vocational training required to overcome their specific handicaps; some are totally incapable for any sort of vocational training.

Q.—Has the rate of casualties decreased steadily in this war?

A.—Yes. In France, for instance, the ratio of casualties was highest during the opening period of the war, in which the battles of Charleroi and the Marne were fought. In each six months of the years 1915 and 1916 the ratio of casualties to men mobilized in the French Army declined: from 2.39 per cent in the first six months of 1915 to 1.68 per cent in the six months following; to 1.47 per cent in the first half of 1916, and to 1.28 per cent in the latter half of that year.

Q.—Is every "disabled" man a hopeless cripple?

A.—An official statement made in Washington early in 1917 said:

"The popular idea that every disabled man is a cripple is disproved by the figures of the inter-Allied conference, held in Paris in May, 1917. These figures show only 167 cases of amputation in every 1,000 disabilities. Consequently, 833 cases in every 1,000 are injuries of other kinds. The men are classified according to their most serious disability, but in 14 or 15 per cent of all cases there are two or three, or even four, injuries. Blindness is given as low as less than 1 per cent of the disabilities, and French figures give the percentage of blindness to be .05 per cent of the soldiers engaged in battle."

Q.—Must we expect many of our boys to return disabled?

A.—Canadian figures, published early in 1918, showed that 10 per cent of the men sent overseas had been returned physically unfit for further military service, and that of this 10 per cent 30 per cent were in hospitals at the time of the report. The majority of these patients were convalescing, since men are not returned to Canada until their physical condition permits.

On the basis of Canadian and of European experience, it would appear that the United States may fairly anticipate that for 1,000,000 men overseas 100,000 will be returned each year unfit for military service, and that the number of patients constantly in the hospitals will be from 30,000 to 50,000.

Q.—Just what number of men are likely to be disabled?

A.—A broad general estimate by American Government experts is as follows:

Number of men in service....	1,000,000
Number of men returned unfit for military service.....	100,000
Number not requiring vocational re-education.....	80,000
Number requiring vocational re-education:	
Complete	10,000
Partial	10,000

Q.—What have the British casualties been lately?

A.—British casualties reported in December, 1917, reached a total of 79,527, divided as follows: Killed or died of wounds—officers, 1,045; men, 14,805. Wounded or missing—officers, 3,342; men, 60,335. Casualties reported from December 26 to 31 were 9,951, divided as follows: Killed or died of wounds—officers, 65; men, 2,059. Wounded or missing—officers, 238; men, 7,589. The total British casualties for the last six months of 1917 were 521,373, the lowest figure in any one month being 60,373 for August.

Q.—What is the proportion of officers to men killed and wounded?

A.—That is difficult to say, as only Great Britain gives any particulars as to how many officers are among the casualties. It is pretty certain that at the beginning of the war the losses of English officers were heavier than those of the French, Germans or Russians. All neutrals appear to agree that the British officer exposed himself too much, but that fault has been remedied, and they have learned that, after all, an officer is the part of the machinery of an army most difficult to replace. Roughly, there was one officer to every forty men in the British Army. In the early engagements there was one officer to every thirty men in the casualty lists, but sometimes the proportion was as high as one to fifteen.

The proportion of British officers to men killed ran about 1 to 15 in 1917 and 1918.

Q.—What were the Russian losses at Tannenberg?

A.—Seventy thousand men were reported to have been captured there, and some 100,000 were killed or wounded. The vastness of the losses was due to the fact that von Hindenburg drove great masses of the Czar's soldiers into the lakes. It is said that his army was numerically much inferior to that of the Russians, but by the skilful use of the railways, on ground which he had studied for very many years, he was able to deceive the Russians as to the size of his forces, and entangle them in the lakes.

Q.—What casualties have the Canadians sustained?

A.—Up to the end of June, 1917, the casualties were as follows:

Killed or wounded	142,779
Missing	31,955
Discharged	26,000

Q.—What have the Australian casualties been?

A.—Up to the end of September, 1917, the casualties were as follows:

OFFICERS.

Dead	1,358
Wounded	1,183
Missing	40
Sick	1,337
Prisoners	91
Casualty unknown	69
Total	4,078

CHAPLAINS.

Dead	3
Wounded	7
Sick	25
Total	35

NURSES.

Dead	7
Wounded	1
Sick	142
Total	150

OTHERS.

Dead	30,456
Wounded	43,043
Missing	1,644
Sick	25,294
Prisoners	2,810
Casualty unknown	180
Total	103,427

The total number of Australians out of action is 107,690.

Q.—How many Germans fell in the attack on Liége?

A.—The various reports of losses that were spread through the world, if added up, would have totaled almost 120,000. As the entire attacking army, under von Emmich, consisted, when strongest, of 40,000 men only, this figure is obviously absurd. The Germans say that they lost 10,000 killed and wounded before Liége surrendered.

Q.—What were the British casualties in the Gallipoli campaign?

A.—It was officially stated that up to December 9, 1915, the total number of British casualties at the Dardanelles were as follows:

Killed—	
Officers	1,667
Others	24,535
Wounded—	
Officers	3,028
Others	72,781
Missing—	
Officers	350
Others	12,194
A total altogether of	114,555

The Australian casualty lists, as published there up to the end of March, 1916, gave the following total:

Dead—	
Officers	347
Others	6,443
Wounded—	
Officers	262
Others	10,118
Missing—	
Officers	19
Others	1,887
A total altogether of..	19,076

If we deduct this from the 114,555 British casualties) we get the losses (95,000), which were sustained by British forces, other than Australian, on the Peninsula. It is reasonable to assume that, as the British losses were five times as great as the Australian, there must have been five times as many British and Indian troops used on the peninsula as there were Australian. In addition, there were a large number of French soldiers used at Krithia.

Q.—How much does it cost to kill a soldier?

A.—The French General Percin has estimated that in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71, it cost $21,000 each; in the Russo-Japanese War of 1905, it cost $20,500. It is impossible to make even a rough estimate as to the amount it costs to kill a man in the present war. It is undoubtedly costing more to kill one now than it did in 1914. If we assume that during the first three years the total number of men killed was 3,000,000, and the total amount of cash expended by the belligerents on the war was $75,000,000,000, it would work out at $25,000 per man killed.

Q.—Is it true that the Germans use moss instead of cotton wool for dressing wounds?

A.—The Germans are not alone in using it. Sphagnum moss is used by the British also. Special machinery has been set up in Scotland to prepare the moss for use. It is washed first and freed from any foreign substance. It then is wrung out and passes to the drying room. After being thoroughly dried it is weighed and compressed in powerful hydraulic presses. It is being widely used now, giving indeed much better results than cotton wool. Its healing powers were discovered quite by accident. A worker met with a serious injury in a peat moss litter works in Germany, and, no appliances being handy, his fellows laid moss litter on the wound and bandaged it up. When the man reached a hospital, the doctors were horrified at the dirty-looking litter, and declared that the limb would have to be amputated. They found, however, that far from poisoning the wound, as they had feared, the injury had been actually cleaned by the rude emergency dressing. Thus was "discovered" sphagnum moss from the surgeon's point of view.

Q.—Are all soldiers vaccinated against typhoid?

A.—Yes. All the British, French, German and American soldiers are inoculated against typhoid on the American plan, which proved singularly successful only recently when our troops were on the Mexican border. The Japanese used the system, or one like it, in the Russo-Japanese War with wonderful results.

Q.—Are our soldiers vaccinated against anything else?

A.—Yes. They get a series of inoculations. They are, of course, vaccinated

against small-pox. In addition, they are inoculated against the pneumonia germ, against measles and scarlet fever, and specialists were working in 1918 to find the germ of the dreaded "trench fever."

Q.—What is tetanus?

A.—It is the disorder known by the common name of lockjaw. It is caused by the *bacilli tetani*, a germ having its home in the earth. For this reason the grim affliction is so prevalent among wounded soldiers, who often lie for hours with open wounds, on the fields, or in trenches. In acute cases the chance of recovery is exceedingly remote.

Q.—Is there no cure?

A.—There is an antitoxin treatment, first used on an extensive and radical scale during the war. It is not a positive cure, but it has greatly minimized the fatalities.

Q.—What happens to wounded between two lines?

A.—The wounded remain where they fall. It is impossible to remove them. Those who can do so endeavor to crawl away. Succeeding charges go over them. There is no practice in the war of allowing the enemy to remove them from the zone of fire. After the attacks have failed, all those who are severely wounded may have to remain where they are, and the majority die.

Q.—How does care of wounded compare with the Civil War?

A.—The wounded in the Civil War were collected at night by both armies, instead of during the conflict, each side by mutual agreement allowing the other side to carry on the work unmolested.

Little was done toward speeding up the treatment of the wounded, except in a few cases that came to the attention of the army surgeon, as he rode about the battlefield in company with mounted staff officers. He would select a few of the less serious cases, carry them to a favorable place, and give treatment. Only in the latter part of the war were anything like dressing-stations or field-hospitals established, and then only when buildings near by offered temporary shelter.

Q.—Does the medical service suffer heavily in this war?

A.—During three years of war the British Medical Corps suffered 11,667 casualties, with a death-roll of 1,200.

Q.—Are many soldiers incapacitated without being wounded?

A.—Yes. Very many. There are big groups who suffer from functional disturbances of the central nervous system. These cases present paralyses and other disturbances of locomotion, which are purely hysterical, or they show mental disorders which are also functional, but are like true insanity. One of the characteristic cases is that known as "shell shock," due to sudden and unexpected exposure to the vibration and noise of the discharge of high explosives. Much success has been achieved by systems of nerve and muscle education, especially in French institutions devoted to this work.

Q.—Has the war produced new diseases?

A.—Yes—new in the sense that Western and Central Europe had never been afflicted by them before. One is "spotted typhus," carried by the body louse—normally found only in Southeastern Europe. Another disease is known as "trench fever," which is a short, very debilitating fever of low mortality, that incapacitates its victims for an appreciable period.

Q.—Has antisepsis been developed in this war?

A.—Very much so. Dr. Samuel W. Lambert, dean of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, says:

"The greatest additions to the antiseptic treatment of wounds have come from the studies of Dr. Dakin, who has applied the properties of chlorine preparations to the disinfection of wounds. The problem which he solved was to discover strong antiseptics able to destroy microbes without damaging normal tissues. Dr. Alexis Carrel developed a method of using Dr. Dakin's antiseptics by putting into the wounded tissues a system of multiple tubes, and thus keeping the wound constantly washed with the antiseptic solution."

Q.—Can disabled soldiers really be made self-supporting?

A.—Of the men returned in Canada unfit for military service, 80 per cent return to their former occupations without vocational training or are incapable of such training, and 20 per cent require vocational training. One-half of those requiring vocational training, or 10 per cent of those returned unfit for military service, require complete vocational re-educa-

tion, and one-half partial vocational re-education.

Q.—What was the first nation to use her wounded over again?

A.—Belgium, whose depletion has been the greatest, was the first nation successfully to use her men over again. Not only has the large Belgian re-education center of Port Villez been self-supporting, but it has paid back to the Belgian Government the entire capital cost of installation. The men, meantime, have not only received 43 centimes per day, the regular pay of the Belgian soldier, but also 5 to 20 centimes an hour, according to their work. In addition, surplus profits are funded for the men. Forty-three trades are taught at Port Villez under the most competent instructors. A large part of the material for the Belgian Army is made by them.

Q.—What are we going to do about men who are disabled?

A.—Plans for the rehabilitation and re-education of soldiers and sailors disabled in the war, so that they may actually earn higher wages than before their enlistment, have been outlined in two reports submitted to Congress by the Federal Board of Vocational Education. The reports urged an immediate appropriation for the training of teachers for the work and for establishing great schools near hospitals in all parts of the country.

Q.—Has Germany reclaimed many disabled men?

A.—The Federal Board of Vocational Education says:

"It is claimed that Germany uses 85 to 90 per cent of her disabled back of the lines, and that the majority of the remaining 10 to 15 per cent are entirely self-supporting."

Q.—What is the difference between indemnity and reparation?

A.—In many ways the terms are synonymous. A nation sufficiently victorious to lay down terms that its enemy simply must accept, would be very likely to make only very dubious technical distinction between the two.

Adhering closely to the narrow meaning of the two words, however, there is a decided difference. The payment of indemnity carries with it a confession that the nation paying it has wrongfully caused a war. No nation acknowledges such a thing as a rule. Therefore indemnity in its final essence is a payment exacted under duress from a vanquished nation.

Reparation, on the other hand, may conceivably be a voluntary payment made by a victorious nation. Such reparation would be chiefly a matter of bookkeeping, limiting itself to repayment of actual material values destroyed. It might possibly extend so far as to repay even the war-expenses of the nation getting the reparation, but that is highly unlikely.

Q.—Which would involve the most money—indemnity or reparation?

A.—Indemnity is an arbitrarily fixed sum which the vanquished nation is expected to pay without argument. A victor might exact an indemnity which is actually less than his own material money losses—that is, it might be less than actual reparation would cost. But indemnity generally is a huge sum whose basic principle would be that the vanquished must pay first of all the war-expenses of the victor. To this might be added anything that the victor may choose, or, at least, as much as he might think the vanquished can pay. Such indemnity might include both material and intangible damages—loss of life, of trade, sufferings of the nation at home, loss of trade, injury to national prestige, even injury to national dignity.

BATTLES OF THE GREAT WAR

Q.—What was the first pitched battle of the war?

A.—The first pitched battle of the war was in front of Metz after French forces had crossed the German frontier. It was fought while German forces still were in Belgium, before they had made their way into France. The French were defeated.

Q.—How many British fought at Namur?

A.—It is estimated by British writers that French's command at that time was about 70,000 men.

Q.—Why did the French fall back on Paris?

A.—The original French plan called for a stand at the Belgium frontier near Namur. This point was to be held by a smaller force than was thrown against it by the enemy and was to hold out at all costs. Behind the line were to be collected the reserves and forces of maneuvering until they were so organized as to be able to strike a concentrated blow at some point.

The force at Namur did not hold out so long as was necessary and they were virtually overwhelmed and came near to being outflanked. Consequently they had to retreat or be annihilated. They retreated and the whole French line had to fall back with them. It fell back as slowly as possible so as to allow the maneuvering masses to form at its rear. These masses were in fighting trim when the Meuse was reached; here a stand was made and their strength brought into play.

Q.—When did a Russian army make a wonderful escape?

A.—After the fall of Warsaw in 1915, General Hindenburg tried to smash between two parts of the Russian Army, and capture or destroy it in the Pripet Marshes. The Russian situation was so desperate that for a few days total disaster seemed inevitable. But by wonderfully brilliant tactics (among the most brilliant in the war, during which at one time they actually surrounded two German army corps even while they were surrounded themselves) they broke their way out.

The retreat, under the circumstances, could not fail to be disastrous. The Germans made 100,000 prisoners during a week; but the Russian Army, as an army, was saved.

Q.—What was the most spectacular operation of the war?

A.—Perhaps it was the sea and land attack on the Dardanelles. But the one that was clearest and most graphic to the American people was no doubt the tremendous attack on, and the marvellous defense of Verdun, the military key to the west front, which the German Crown Prince tried to take in 1916. It has been, since 1871, the most important of the French defenses on the eastern frontier between the Argonne and the Vosges.

During the German advance of 1914 Verdun held out under violent attack, although the German were able to push a deep salient to the south at St. Mihiel.

In February, 1916, the armies of the German Crown Prince began a furious and sensational assault upon Verdun. At first the German offensive proved irresistible and led to the capture of a large portion of the fortified area around Verdun and of such important forts as Douaumont and Vaux. But the German losses were terrific. Verdun was called "the grave" by German soldiers, and the final check administered to their attacks by the French marked the end of German offensive for a long period on the western front. A counter offensive, organized by General Nivelle in October, 1916, and another in August, 1917, enabled the French at small cost quickly to reclaim practically all the ground they had lost in the great German attack of 1916.

Q.—Is the Chemin des Dames a fort?

A.—No. It is simply a road, but a most important one, because it runs along a crest of hills overlooking the valley of the Ailette River in northern France. Here the Germans retained a foothold after the battle of the Aisne. The French offensive north of Rheims in the summer of 1917 included attacks on the town of Craonne and the Chemin des Dames.

The French success at the Chemin des Dames in June furnished some of the most desperate fighting of the war. German counter attacks against the ridge in

July outrivaled their attacks at Verdun. They failed to dislodge the French from their advantage.

Q.—Why did the Russians not break into Germany early in the war?

A.—They did so twice but the fortune of war went badly against them. Almost as soon as war began they sent a big army into East Prussia, but August 26-31, 1914, General Hindenburg fought and won the famous Battle of Tannenberg and captured practically the entire army.

In January, 1915, the Russians moved through the Mazurian Lake regions (in the same general territory and with the same general object of over-running East Prussia). They advanced so rapidly that the world expected the certain investment of Koenigsberg and other fortified German cities. But in February Hindenburg again countered and the Russians suffered a terrific disaster in the lakes and swamps, being routed in almost complete disorder and losing more than 40,000 men in prisoners beside the big losses in killed. This great battle ended all Russian attempts to invade Germany. After that the Russians centered their efforts on the Austrian front, so far as attempts at invasion went.

Q.—Was Tannenberg the greatest victory so far?

A.—It was the greatest success in a single battle, for this two-days' victory over the Russians on August 29-31, 1914, in the neighborhood of Tannenberg in East Prussia, resulted in the capture of 70,000 Russians, including 2 generals, 300 officers and the equipment of two whole army corps.

Q.—Why was there such a fight for the Carso?

A.—Because the Carso is a huge mountainous plateau that commands the road to Trieste. It is near the head of the Adriatic and on the coast road from the Isonzo to Trieste. The Italians began a mighty offensive in this region late in May, 1917. Its initial success promised to clear the entire front from Tolmino to the sea. A sudden and absolutely catastrophic Austro-German drive began in this region in October, 1917, and pressed the Italians back to the Piave River after a defeat that bade fair at one time to shatter the Italian resistance and give all Venetia to the invaders. But at the Piave the Italians succeeded in holding fast.

Q.—Was the Gallipoli campaign a failure?

A.—Yes. The British and French forces were withdrawn and the attempt to force the Dardanelles abandoned after eight months fighting in which 115,000 British soldiers alone were killed, wounded or captured.

Q.—What caused the British failure in the Dardanelles?

A.—The main causes of the failure of the Dardanelles campaign of 1915 are considered to be: First, lack of concentration of military forces upon the Peninsula of Gallipoli, due to the fear of German-Turkish design on Egypt; second, lack of co-operation between army and navy; third, lack of heavy artillery to assist in reducing the Turkish positions; fourth, the natural impregnable nature of the straits.

The first attempt, made by the navy alone, was a total failure and simply demonstrated anew that fortifications well armed and fought, cannot be reduced from the sea without land actions to assail the forts simultaneously from the rear.

Q.—Has this front been quite abandoned?

A.—Gallipoli was completely evacuated January 8, 1916.

Q.—Has there been any really decisive battle so far?

A.—No—not decisive in the sense of winning the war. A number of battles have been decisive as changing the phases of the war. Thus the Battle of the Marne in September, 1914, definitely ended the triumphant sweep of the Germans toward Paris, and made impossible their plans for cutting off the French Army, and thus ending the war in the west quickly, before Russia could get ready in the east.

Again the two battles (Tannenberg and the Mazurian Lakes) destroyed the Russian plans for invading Germany.

The first battle of Verdun, February to October, 1916, decided the character of Germany's warfare for a long time thereafter, forcing the Germans to a defensive holding of their line in place of an offensive.

The battles of October and November, 1917, on the Isonzo and related Italian fronts swept away the Italian gains of two years and decisively carried the war into the Italian plains.

Q.—When was Jerusalem captured?

A.—Jerusalem was taken by the British forces under General Sir Edmund Allenby on December 10, 1917, and the victorious commander entered officially at noon on December 11th. The final attacks near the city were made December 8th. General Allenby entered the city on foot with a few of the staff, the commanders of the French and Italian detachments, the heads of the political missions and the military attaches of France, Italy and America.

Q.—Was there a really great siege in this war?

A.—Yes. A spectacular and wonderful siege was that of Przemysl (pronounced Chemisel), a fortified city of Galicia, which was invested by the Russians September 16 to October 14, 1914. The siege was temporarily abandoned because of Hindenburg's offensive, but was renewed in November. The Austrian garrison, completely cut off, made underground strongholds and batteries, after the outlying fortifications were destroyed, and for a time aeroplanes supplied food.

The siege lasted for 5 months after the second investment began, the garrison not surrendering until March 22, 1915.

The Russian victory was brief. On June 3, 1915, an Austro-German army, under General Mackensen, retook the city and kept it.

Q.—Were there any other remarkable sieges?

A.—As magnificent as the defense of Przemysl and even more romantic was the splendid defense of the besieged British army in Kut-el-Amara, a city in Mesopotamia about 100 miles below Bagdad, occupied by the British in November, 1915, during an unsuccessful advance upon Bagdad. The British force under General Townshend was besieged for 143 days. In spite of a Russian column proceeding from Erzerum to Kermanshah trying to make a junction with the British at Bagdad or Kut, and in spite of a British relief force moving upon Kut from the south, General Townshend was starved into surrender April 28-29, 1916, after such a glorious defense as will hereafter make one of the grand historical land-marks for England's tale of heroism. The city was reoccupied by the British under General Maude. February 24, 1917.

Q.—What was the first time during the war when no shot was fired?

A.—It was on September 7, 1917, when for the first time since the war began, not a single shot was fired along the whole Russian front. It was the beginning of the first ten-days' armistice.

Q.—How did the great German offensive of 1918 open?

A.—It began March 21, 1918, after a terrific but comparatively brief preliminary bombardment. About ninety-five German divisions of 12,000 men each were thrown swiftly against the British line on a fifty-mile front from Arras to La Fere. A mist helped the operations of the Germans. March 21-22 they penetrated the first lines. By March 23 they were deep in the British positions, claimed 25,000 prisoners, 400 cannon, 300 machine guns. The Fifth British Army under General Gough was roughly handled and its commander was superseded. The British made a splendid defense and were not routed, though forced to retire.

March 24th the German long-range gun began to bombard Paris, and Peronne and Ham were taken, with German claims of 30,000 prisoners, 600 guns. March 25th Bapaume was in their hands. March 26th the Germans took Albert. By April 12th they were being held on the north by the British, but on the south they had arrived within 4½ miles of the great railroad from Paris to Calais via Amiens and were making a new attack on the north around Ypres.

Q.—What was the German gain?

A.—By March 25th they had not only recaptured the ground lost in the big Battle of Cambrai, November, 1917, but they had pushed back the Allied lines almost exactly to the old line of the Somme as it stood before the great Allied attacks of July, 1916. On this date the Germans had advanced in several places, well beyond the old line of the Somme. South of Amiens they were within five miles of ground reached by them in the first vast rush toward Paris in 1914. They had advanced into the British and French positions in distances ranging from five miles south of Arras to forty miles on the Amiens line. By April 12th, they claimed about 100,000 prisoners—an estimate which Lloyd George declared was exaggerated.

SEA FIGHTS OF THE GREAT WAR

Q.—What was the first naval battle of the war?

A.—The Battle of the Bight of Heligoland, August 28, 1914, between Sir David Beatty's cruiser squadron and a fleet of German cruisers. The Germans lost three cruisers, the *Mainz, Köln,* and *Ariadne,* and the British one destroyer. Seven hundred Germans perished and 300 were taken prisoner.

Q.—When and what was the sea battle of Jutland?

A.—May 31-June 1, 1916. It was the greatest naval battle in history, in point of size of ships and tonnage of warships lost. Germany's High Sea fleet, which had been for twenty months idle in the Kiel Canal, dashed out a hundred miles or so from the Jutland coast into the North Sea, under command of Admirals von Sheer and von Hipper, hoping to engage and destroy a portion of the British fleet before the remainder came to its aid.

The British battle-cruiser fleet, under Sir David Beatty, whose business it was to make periodical sweeps through the North Sea for the enemy, gave chase, in the hope of getting between and cutting off the German fleet from its base, while wirelessing for the British battle fleet, the "Grand Fleet," under Sir John Jellico, which proceeded at full speed to join Sir David Beatty. The fleets engaged, resulting in the loss to the British fleet of six large ships of a tonnage of 104,700, and to the German fleet of six large ships with a tonnage of 57,087.

Both England and Germany have accounted the action a victory ever since, and their technical writers are still demonstrating the reasons for the claim.

Q.—What ships were lost in the great Jutland battle?

A.—The Germans admit the following losses:

Ships.	Tons.
Lutzow (battle-cruiser)	28,000
Pommern (pre-dreadnaught)	13,000
Rostock (light cruiser)	4,820
Frauenlob (light cruiser)	2,667
Weisbaden (light cruiser)	4,300
Elbing (light cruiser)	4,300
Five torpedo-boats	.....
Total German losses in heavy tonnage	57,087

The British admit the following losses:

Ships.	Tons.
Queen Mary (battle-cruiser)	27,000
Indefatigable (battle-cruiser)	18,750
Invincible (battle-cruiser)	17,250
Defence (armored cruiser)	14,600
Black Prince (armored cruiser)	13,550
Warrior (armored cruiser)	13,550
Eight destroyers	.....
Total British losses in heavy tonnage	104,700

This battle was fought May 31-June 1, 1916. Each side for a time declared that the other side had suffered more losses than it would admit, but the *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* for January, 1918, give the ships listed here, and this list agrees with lists given out some time ago.

Q.—Was the "Von Moltke" battle cruiser sunk by a British submarine?

A.—It was reported that she was sunk by British under-water craft, but the Germans denied her loss. In the official German reports about the Jutland battle mention is made of this battle-cruiser as having taken part. In fact, when the *Lutzow* was knocked out, Admiral von Hipper transferred his flag from her to the *von Moltke,* according to report.

It is well established now that the only big German battleship-type ships sunk in the Jutland battle were the *Lutzow* and the *Pommern.*

Q.—What German ships fought at the Falklands?

A.—The German squadron, under Admiral von Spee, consisted of the two armored cruisers *Gneisenau* and *Scharnhorst,* both of 11,420 tons, armed with eight 8.2-inch guns; the *Leipsig, Nürnberg* and *Dresden,* of 3,200, 3,350 and 3,544 tons respectively, armed with 4.1-inch guns. There was also a supply ship. The *Dresden,* a sister ship to the *Emden,* was engined with turbines, and, like all turbine boats, was able to develop a higher speed than that on her recorded trials. Her speed enabled her to escape, but she was sunk later when at anchor in Chilean waters. The supply boat also got away, but all the other vessels were sunk, their reciprocating engines only giving the quickest of them a speed of 23 knots.

Q.—What was the British strength?

A.—Admiral Sturdee's fleet consisted of the dreadnaught-cruisers *Inflexible* and *Invincible*, both of 17,250 tons, armed with eight 12-inch guns, and with a speed of 25 knots; the battleship *Canopus*, 12,950 tons, four 12-inch guns, 18.5 knots; the swift cruisers *Glasgow* and *Bristol*, each 4,800 tons, two 6-inch guns; the armored cruiser *Carnarvon*, seven 5-inch guns, 23 knots; and the *Kent* and the *Cornwall*, 9,800 tons, fourteen 6-inch guns, 23 knots. The *Good Hope*, sunk by the German ships off the Chilean coast, was an old vessel, but actually larger than either of the Germans, nominally more speedy, and carried heavier guns, but only two of them.

Q.—What bounty was earned by Admiral Sturdee and his crews?

A.—They received the ordinary bounty of £5 ($25) per head, for each enemy sailor on the destroyed boats. In the Prize Court, held on August 21 and presided over by Sir Samuel Evans, it was proved that the crews of the enemy ships destroyed were as follows:—*Scharnhorst*, 872; *Gneisenau*, 835; *Nürnberg*, 384; and *Leipzig*, 341; a total of 2,432. At £5 a head this made the bounty £12,160 ($60,800), which was accordingly awarded to Admiral Sturdee and the officers and crews of the *Invincible*, *Inflexible*, *Carnarvon*, *Cornwall*, *Kent* and *Glasgow*. The crew of the *Invincible* will never enjoy their share of this money, as that battle-cruiser was sunk in the Horn Reef engagement. The other two vessels of Sturdee's fleet, the *Bristol* and *Canopus*, took no part in the action.

Q.—Did any members of Admiral von Spee's squadron get back to Germany?

A.—According to the German papers Lieutenant Otto Schenk, one of the few survivors, did succeed in reaching Germany, after a journey of eight months from South America.

Q.—Was the "Dresden" really sunk in neutral waters?

A.—She was. Great Britain formally apologized for the occurrence to the Government of Chile, which accepted the apology. Photographs which have appeared in the British papers—taken by officers on the British warships before they opened fire—show that the German vessel was anchored quite close inshore. They indicate the nearness of the hills. The *Dresden* had apparently been asked by the authorities of Juan Fernandez—Robinson Crusoe's island—to leave, and had not done so. That was the excuse given by the British commander for violating the neutrality of Chile. The *Dresden* does not appear to have returned the fire of the British ships. The crew abandoned her and then blew her up.

Q.—What was the "Emden"?

A.—She was a small protected cruiser, 3,500 tons, 24.5 knots, twelve 4-inch guns. She and her sister, the *Dresden*, were the first light cruisers the Germans fitted with turbine engines, and she made an astonishing war-cruise in the Pacific and Indian Oceans soon after war began.

Q.—How many ships did the "Emden" sink?

A.—She sank altogether seventeen British steamers, and captured several others, but released them as they contained cargoes belonging to neutrals. The vessels sunk were as follows. The values include ship and cargo, and are estimated. It will be seen that the total tonnage lost amounted to 74,881, and the value was $11,055,000.

Ship.	Tonnage.	Value.
Indus	3,393	$690,000
Lovat	6,102	300,000
Killin	3,544	215,000
Diplomat	7,615	1,500,000
Trabboch	4,015	130,000
Clan Matheson	4,775	190,000
Tymeric	3,314	905,000
King Lud	3,650	2 0,000
Ribera	3,500	180,000
Foyle	4,147	150,000
Buresk	4,350	260,000
Chilkana	5,140	1,060,000
Troilus	7,562	3,400,000
Benmohr	4,806	815,000
Clan Grant	3,948	640,000
Ponrabbel	478	145,000
Exford	4,542	275,000

Q.—Did the captain of the "Emden" respect the rules of war?

A.—Apparently Captain von Müller always did so. He disguised his ship by putting up an extra funnel, etc., permissible acts in war. The *London Times*, commenting on the sinking of the ship by the *Sydney*, said that "no deed of brutality or outrage has been recorded against her, and her commander, Captain von Müller, is reported to have treated the

crews of the vessels which he captured with generosity and courtesy." It also referred to the difficulty of the operations undertaken by the *Emden,* and said that "she carried out her part with a daring which friend and foe had equally recognized."

Q.—Did the "Emden" raid Penang Harbor under the Japanese flag?

A.—A British captain, whose ship was in the harbor at the time, said definitely that she was flying no flag at all when she came in, but flew the German ensign when firing on the Russian cruiser. Captain von Müller himself and his crew assert that they never flew any flag but their own in any of the time, if they showed one at all. The only disguise they adopted was to add another funnel. Penang Harbor was entered at night, and the Russians were almost all ashore.

Q.—Did the Allied ships in Penang expect attack?

A.—Evidently not. They were relying on the vigilance of two French destroyers, which were patrolling the two entrances to the harbor. The *Emden* never met the first one, although a pilot boat approached her and fled as soon as it got near enough to see who she was. The first torpedo fired by the Germans did not finish the *Zemtchug,* and the *Emden* turned and dispatched another, which proved fatal. The German officers were near enough to see the Russians hastening up from below in confusion. The cruiser left by the other entrance, and there met and sank the French destroyer *Mousquet.*

Q.—What became of the "Emden's" men who disappeared from Cocos Islands?

A.—They got away in a sailing boat, and finally reached the coast of Arabia, some 3,500 miles distant from the scene of the disaster which overwhelmed the German raider. From Arabia they went overland to Constantinople. The story of this long wandering through a world of foes is like a modern Odyssey and it has made everybody familiar with the name of von Mucke, the young naval officer who led the little band.

Q.—Did von Müller know that the Australian transports were near the Cocos Islands?

A.—He says that he did not; in fact, was not aware that they were anywhere in the neighborhood. It is quite possible that his raid on the Cocos might have been successful, and no message have reached the *Sydney,* had he not taken down his fourth funnel before the eyes of the islanders. This, of course, gave him away, and resulted in the speedy destruction of the *Emden.*

Q.—How could the "Emden" hold out so long?

A.—She simply went out into the Indian Ocean, and carefully steamed away whenever she saw smoke on the horizon. She had plenty of coal from ships she captured, and during the whole of her peregrinations she seldom steamed faster than twelve knots. She had an exceptionally large crew, having on board the men from a couple of gunboats left at Kiauchau. Thus prize crews could be sent off whenever necessary.

Q.—Which was the greatest naval disaster of the war?

A.—The most serious naval disaster that has been reported was the sinking of the French cruiser *Provence,* which was torpedoed on February 26, 1917. It had on board nearly 4,000 men, and of these 3,130 were drowned. The *Provence* was a converted liner used as a transport, and carried eleven guns. No submarine was seen. There never has been such loss of life when a single ship went down before. When the *Lusitania* was torpedoed 1,198 lives were lost; when the *Titanic* sank 1,595 people were drowned.

Q.—Was there a great sea fight in the North Sea, in August, 1914?

A.—No. This fight was officially reported in India, but was subsequently contradicted. The rumor once started, however, has gone on, and constant reference is made to the alleged action in the neutral press. A circumstantial report was made in 1916 about an engagement off the Norwegian coast, but this, too, had no foundation in fact.

Q.—Why were the German cruisers "Goeben" and "Breslau" so famous?

A.—Because of their very wonderful escape from the British and French navies in the Mediterranean. This escape has been characterized by the experts of all nations as having been one of the most brilliant naval tactics on record.

Hopelessly outnumbered, practically surrounded, unable to seek any port without being blockaded or interned, the captains of the two ships steered boldly out of the Adriatic into the Mediterranean, made feints at attacking enemy territory on the African coast, "jammed" the wireless of the British and French ships, and succeeded in running the cordon and entering the Dardanelles.

After that they played a part in big international history because their presence apparently had much to do with deciding Turkey's action in joining the war.

Q.—Was Turkey an ally of the Central Powers?

A.—No. Turkey was not then in the war, and occupied the position of a neutral nation.

Q.—What right did Turkey have to give them asylum?

A.—None. Under international law Turkey's duty was to order them out of her ports after a reasonable time for repairs, or else to intern them.

Q.—Why did Turkey not do this?

A.—It was very clear to the whole world, and, of course, to Turkey, that sooner or later she would be forced out of her neutrality. Apart from many other reasons that could be conjectured in advance, there was sure to be the demand by Russia and Great Britain for passage of warships through the Dardanelles. Whether she refused or acceded, she was certain to be forced into the war. In this crisis, the accession to her naval force of two such excellent ships was something that had a great deal of weight, and may have hastened her decision.

Q.—Did Turkey's protection of the ships furnish the actual casus belli?

A.—No. Turkey responded to Great Britain's protest by promising to intern the ships and put them out of commission. After a while, she announced suddenly that she had bought them and incorporated them in the Turkish Navy.

Q.—Was this legitimate under international law?

A.—It was a point that opened intricate question. The Allied governments, and everybody else, knew very well that the sale was only a pretended one. But there was a big difference between knowing it and proving it. Therefore, a Declaration of War against Turkey based merely on this episode was not considered advisable.

Q.—Did the Turks retain the names of the cruisers?

A.—They went through all the correct forms, apparently, of placing them into the Turkish service. The *Breslau* was renamed *Midullu* and the *Goeben* was renamed *Sultan Yawuz Selim*.

Q.—Did the two ships play much part in fighting?

A.—In some measure they may be said to have brought on the entrance of Turkey into the war by their activities in the Black Sea. According to Russia, they opened fire on Russian ships. According to Turkey, they were fired on. At any rate, on November 3, 1914, Russia declared war on Turkey. This was followed on November 5 by French and British declarations of war.

Q.—Were the two cruisers not sunk soon afterward?

A.—They were—in the news dispatches. They were sunk with great frequency. During quite a period the cables brought accounts every few days of their total destruction.

Q.—What was the truth?

A.—The truth was that they acted with varying success in the Black Sea. They were unable to do anything decisive, but they managed to remain in action, to harass the Russian coasts and Black Sea marine, and to escape the heavy Russian battleships.

Q.—Were they of use during the attack on the Dardanelles?

A.—Very little, except strategically. They did not play much part in the defense, so far as gunfire or actual operations went. But they were of great use in helping to guard Turkey's back-door—the Black Sea.

Q.—Were they of any service after the Dardanelles campaign?

A.—They harried the Russian transport service continually and also kept the Rus-

sian coast in more or less unrest, their last fairly important service being the sinking of many small Russian war-craft and merchant ships and the bombardment of Russian coast in June, 1917. After that they were not heard from much, until January 20, 1918, when there was a sudden action outside of the Dardanelles, which ended in the sinking of the *Midullu* (*Breslau*) and of two British monitors, while the *Sultan Yawus Selim* (*Goeben*) stranded, but finally got back into the Dardanelles, badly crippled without doubt. The commander of one of the British monitors was Viscount Broome, nephew of Earl Kitchener. He was drowned.

Q.—Did Austrians and Italians ever fight at sea before?

A.—Yes. They had one of the very great sea fights of history. It was in 1866. On July 20th of that year, the Austrian fleet, under Admiral Tegetthoff, engaged the Italian fleet, under Admiral Pessano, in the Bay of Lissa, and though the Italian fleet fought heroically the Austrians were so brilliantly handled that they succeeded in completely destroying the Italian fleet. Tegetthoff's exploit has caused many comparisons to be made between him and Farragut, because their swiftness of decision and the dashing character of their strategy were much alike.

STRATEGY OF THE WAR
Military and Political

Q.—What was the first act of belligerency that affected outside nations directly?

A.—The immediate severance of all methods of communication with Germany. By cutting cables the Allies at once made such countries as the United States excellent bases of activity for themselves and precarious bases for their enemies.

Q.—Was this fair play?

A.—There is no "fair play" in war except such as individual temperament leads individual men to observe. Fair play toward a nation's enemy might be "foul play" toward one's own nation.

Q.—What were the specific advantages of cutting communications?

A.—The German naval vessels scattered throughout the world were instantly hampered because the German Admiralty could not communicate with them, or, at least, could do so only laboriously. The German Government was cut off from its African colonies, where its soldiers thereafter had to fight on their own initiative without any assistance. The entire American continent became sealed to them, and, naturally, since the war was the absorbing subject of the world, the entire continent gladly received all that the cables from the Allied countries could carry about the causes of the war and its aspects.

Q.—What could the belligerents gain in neutral countries by making sentiment?

A.—They could hope to bring some neutral countries into the war on their side. They could hope to prevent some neutral countries from abandoning a useful neutrality. Even in countries which they could not hope to win as fellow-belligerents, or which they did not need to fear as possible allies of their enemies, they could hope to make such sentiment that the neutrality would be distinctly in their favor.

Q.—Did either side wish to bring the United States into the war?

A.—No. Germany could not hope to, if she wished. The Allies could gain far more, as they frankly said, by American productiveness in food and munitions than by belligerent assistance.

Q.—What was the effort of rival activity in Italy?

A.—Both Austria-Hungary and Germany recognized early that they need not hope for Italy as an ally. Thereafter they worked for the sole purpose of keeping her neutral. The Allies, on the other hand, worked to gain Italy's active military aid. The immediate value of this was that she could attack Austria-Hungary in the west while Russia attacked her in the east.

Q.—Did the Germans want to keep Turkey neutral also?

A.—No. Both sides wanted Turkey to enter the war. The Germans succeeded in getting her to do so on their side. It appears as if this must have been a foregone conclusion from the beginning, but for a time there was some reason to hope that she would enter on the Allied side, mainly for the reason that the cause of the Central Powers seemed hopeless.

Q.—Why was Turkey considered so important?

A.—Mostly because she held the Dardanelles. Had she joined the Allies, they would have been able to form a united line with the Russian armies, and there is hardly a doubt that this one blow would have forced the Balkan States to make common cause with them or at the least permit free use of their territory. In that case, Austria-Hungary would have been invaded positively and forced out of the war.

Q.—Would not Turkish neutrality have served the Germans by keeping the Dardanelles closed?

A.—It would. But continued neutrality would have been absolutely impossible for

the Turks. Sooner or later they would have been forced into the war. Therefore the German policy was to get her aid as an ally without taking a chance.

Q.—Were the Dardanelles the great early strategic prize?

A.—There were two waterways whose absolute and undisturbed control was absolutely vital for immediate war-purposes. They were the British Channel and the Dardanelles.

Q.—Could the Germans hope to contest control of the channel against the British fleet?

A.—They could. They could not hope to contest it with their battleships, but they could hope to do so by capturing the entire Belgian coast and the French coast at least as far as Calais. Had they succeeded, they might have made transportation of troops and supplies to France from England exceedingly difficult by using heavy artillery from coast fortifications, by greatly expanding their submarine bases and having them close to the British transport lines, and by making serious threats by land against Havre, the port at the mouth of the Seine.

Q.—What were other important points in the beginning?

A.—The control of the North Sea and the Baltic Sea, the Kiel Canal, and the Austrian naval bases of Trieste and Pola on the Adriatic.

Q.—Did either belligerent gain a decisive advantage in these?

A.—The British gained an almost decisive preponderance of control in the North Sea. The Germans succeeded in holding the Baltic almost at their will. The Kiel Canal and the Austrian naval bases proved practically invulnerable.

Q.—Just what was the value to Germany of the Kiel Canal?

A.—It meant that while the British might control the North Sea, they could not completely rob the German Navy of freedom of movement. The best way to understand its value is to understand that the German North Sea coast and the German Baltic coast are separated from each other by a mighty tongue of land that projects northward until it almost touches Sweden. This is the projection on which Denmark is. Thus the natural geography made it very difficult for naval ships to pass between the Baltic and the North Sea. Enemy ships might easily have cut them off in the narrow passage between Denmark and Sweden (the Cattegat) or between Denmark and Norway (the Skager Rack). Or, part of the German fleet might be blockaded in a North Sea port (the mouth of the Weser or the Elbe) and another part might be blocked within the Baltic, and thus the two fleets rendered permanently too weak for action.

Q.—How did the Kiel Canal solve this problem?

A.—The Kiel Canal cuts straight across the base of the great projection of land. In effect, it has straightened out the coast line for naval purposes, and made one coast of the North Sea and the Baltic coasts.

Q.—What makes the Kiel Canal apparently invulnerable?

A.—Immense fortifications on land, commanding all approaches. Difficult coast lines, forcing exceedingly cautious, and therefore slow, maneuvering by enemy ships. Also the outlying island of Heligoland, which is actually one enormous fortification, armed with every offensive and defensive device of modern warfare, and lying broad in the way of ships that seek to approach the North Sea mouth of the Kiel Canal.

Q.—When did Germany acquire Heligoland?

A.—In 1890, under the Caprivi agreement, Lord Salisbury traded Heligoland to Germany in return for Zanzibar. There was, of course, at that time no thought of Germany's sea rivalry, and the island of Heligoland seemed of little importance to England. It was a mistake, however, as the Germans built up the hollow coast, turning the island into a strong naval fort and making it a front and screen for the German fleet, from behind which they can assemble and make surprise attacks in the North Sea.

Q.—Could you give a succinct picture of the war by stating the changing aspects year by year? What, for instance, were the really big military objectives in 1914?

A.—In the west, German attempt to pierce toward Paris and thus to cut

French armies from British. Unsuccessful. German attempt to drive along northern coast to Calais. Unsuccessful.

In the East, Russian attempt to overrun Galicia. Successful. Russian attempt to invade Germany. Unsuccessful.

Q.—What were the political war aims in 1914?

A.—Allied efforts to bring Turkey, the Balkan States and Italy into the war. Unsuccessful. German attempts to gain Turkey as an ally. Successful.

Q.—What were the great military objectives in 1915?

A.—In the West, German attempt to establish a general defensive. Successful.

In the East, Russian attempt to invade Hungary. Unsuccessful. German attempt to occupy Russian Poland. Successful. Austro-German and Bulgarian attempt to conquer Serbia. Successful. French and British attempt to take Dardanelles. Unsuccessful.

Q.—What were the political aims in 1915?

A.—German attempt to bring Bulgaria in as an ally. Successful. Allied attempts to bring Roumania and Greece in on their side. Unsuccessful. Allied effort to win Italy. Successful.

Q.—What were the vital military objectives in 1916?

A.—In the West, German attempts to resume the offensive (Verdun). Unsuccessful.

In the East, Russian attempt to overrun Bukowina. Successful. German and Austrian attempt to conquer Roumania. Successful. British attempt to capture Bagdad. Unsuccessful.

In the South, Austrian attempt to invade Italy through Trentino. Partly successful. Italian attempt to break Isonzo line. Partly successful.

Q.—What were the political aims of 1916?

A.—Allied attempt to win Roumania to their side. Successful. German attempt to induce enemies to meet in peace conference. Unsuccessful.

Q.—What were the big military objectives in 1917?

A.—In the West, the French and British attempt to force grand retirement of Germans. Unsuccessful.

In the East, German drive along Russian Baltic coast to Riga and beyond. Successful. British attempt to captare Bagdad (with new army). Successful. British attempt to conquer Palestine. Successful.

In the South, Germans and Austro-Hungarians attempt to break Isonzo line and invade northern Italy. Successful.

Q.—What were the political aims of 1917?

A.—To keep the revolutionary government of Russia in line with Allied military and political aims. Unsuccessful. To bring Greece into the war on the side of the Allies. Successful.

Q.—Why cannot a landing be effected on Germany between Holland and Denmark?

A.—Heligoland defends the Bight. The sea is shallow there, and the channels are difficult. The Frisian Islands are strongly fortified, and all approaches are protected with the latest appliances for harbor protection, sunken torpedoes and other defenses. For transports to enter that region would be to invite destruction.

Q.—How could armies or spies destroy great stores of grain?

A.—Great stocks of wheat can of course be fired, but they burn very slowly indeed. Petroleum assists the fire, but it fails to get far into the stacks. Blowing up the grain does not get rid of it, and there is seldom time for a retreating army to stop and load the wheat on to trucks, even if these were available to take it away. It is difficult to ruin it with water, because the water does not penetrate far enough. When the Austrians abandoned Lemberg to the Russians early in the war, they attempted to destroy the huge stores of wheat they had in the city, but the Russians found the wheat practically undamaged, although the sheltering roofs and wooden walls of granaries, etc., had been entirely burned away.

Q.—What were the largest battles in the Roumanian campaign?

A.—The most momentous was fought at Targujiu on November 15 and 18, 1915, when the invading Teutons broke the Roumanian resistance in Western Wallachia. The other decisive battle was fought just a few miles west of Bucharest on December 1, 2 and 3. In this

fight the Roumanian army was completely crushed. The battle in which the Bulgarians and Turks repulsed the Russian General Shakaroff on December 2 was also important, in the effect it had on the campaign generally.

Q.—What is approximately the total area of conquered land held by the enemy?

A.—Owing to the British and French successes, the area held in France was a constantly decreasing quantity during 1917. Still the Germans appeared in the beginning of 1918, to be in occupation of at least 179,400 square miles of Allied territory:

Belgium	11,000	square miles
Poland	49,000	"
Courland	10,400	"
Kovna	15,500	"
Grodno	14,900	"
Vilna	8,000	"
Volhynia and Mynsk	8,000	"
Northern Albania ..	6,000	"
Montenegro	5,600	"
Wallachia and Dobrudja	43,000	"
Northern France ..	8,000	"

The Allies held a small portion of Alsace, and a narrow strip of Austrian territory on the Izonso, not equal to the area that the Germans had in Montenegro and Albania. Outside of Europe, however, the Allies had acquired all the German colonies.

Q.—What was the object of Grand Duke Nicholas in destroying villages and forcing the people to leave their homes and go into Russia when he evacuated Poland and the other provinces?

A.—The theory apparently was to repeat the successful methods employed by the Russians during the Napoleonic invasion of 1812—that is, to clear the country before the advancing enemy, so that he should find neither shelter nor provisions anywhere.

Many critics hold that the military gain was very slight indeed, and that the economic problem thrust upon Russia by the sudden and unexpected arrival of some 13,000,000 destitute refugees was so great that it would have proved far wiser not to have destroyed this multitude's homes, but to have left them behind when his army retired.

Q.—What became of these people who escaped when the Germans took these provinces?

A.—"Escaped" is hardly the right word. The invaders, repairing the railway lines as they came, felt the devastation far less than the wretched inhabitants forced to flee at a few hours' notice along the thronged roads towards Russia. It is said that some 10,000,000 men, women and children were thus driven off by the Russian soldiers, and that at least 2,000,000 of them died on the roadside. These figures may be too large, but it appears certain that more than a million perished, and only some 3,000,000 ultimately reached Petrograd and Moscow of the ten or more millions who set out for those cities.

Q.—What is the greatest mine exploit in history?

A.—At the battle of Messines Ridge, on July 7, 1917, the British exploded simultaneously nineteen mines, containing something like five hundred tons of high explosive, under the German position. The British engineers had been driving tunnels beneath the hills held by the opposing forces for an entire year. There was an unprecedentedly intense preliminary bombardment in which a single British division fired 226,000 shells, the cannonade being heard in English towns 130 miles away. The mine was touched at 3:10 A. M. Practically the entire range was thrown into the air as by a volcano, the heavy concrete emplacements and deep dug-outs of the Germans spouting up in small fragments. Some of the enemy troops survived the horror, but were so dazed that the British charge took the entire ridge with but little resistance.

Q.—Did the term "Allies" include all the nations that entered the war against the Central Powers?

A.—Technically, the only "Allies" were France, Russia and Great Britain, who signed the pact of London, September 5, 1917, binding themselves not to make separate peace.

Q.—Did not other nations join as Allies?

A.—Japan, although entering the war against Germany as a treaty-ally of Great

Britain as soon as it began, signed the separate peace pact some time later. Italy signed the pact when she entered the war. Since then most of the smaller nations that entered the war from time to time became signatories to the peace pact, and they have all been known as Allies.

Q.—The United States is often referred to as an Ally. Is that correct?

A.—It is incorrect. The United States wages war in conjunction with the Allies, but adheres to its own political principles and aims.

FOREIGN NAVIES

Q.—Who spent the most on navies before the war?

A.—Great Britain spent about $245,000,000 on her naval establishment in 1913-1914. Russia was second with about $130,000,000. Third place was held by France with $125,000,000. Germany came fourth with $115,000,000, and Austria spent $37,500,000. Thus the comparative pre-war expenditures of the big opposing forces were: Allies $500,000,000 (about), Central Powers $152,500,000 (about).

Q.—What are "Hush Hush" ships?

A.—They are a new type of very heavily armed and armored British ships, built in a novel way, very long and very low, with a squat central superstructure flanked by turrets or barbettes that hold two extremely powerful guns. The speed is said to be as high as that of battle-cruisers, and it is reported that the guns throw a 1,900-pound shell. While the only information about them has come through chance references, experts assume that they are outgrowths of the modern battle-cruiser principle.

Q.—What were the German naval losses during the whole war?

A.—The list given in the *Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute*, January, 1918, is: 1 battleship, 1 battle-cruiser, 6 armored cruisers, 11 protected cruisers, 9 light cruisers, 11 gunboats, 36 destroyers and torpedo-boats, 24 auxiliary cruisers, 6 small vessels (mine layers, etc.), or 105 vessels in all, not counting submarines. The list gives 55 submarines, the destruction of most of which appears definitely established, and it is undoubted that more have been destroyed.

Q.—How many Allied warships does Germany claim to have sunk?

A.—With the sinking of the French armored cruiser *Chateaurenault* Germany claimed that 300 different warships, with a total tonnage of 1,000,000 tons, belonging to the Entente Allies have been lost since the beginning of the war. Auxiliary cruisers to the number of 51, with a tonnage of 358,000, and other ships commandeered for war purposes numbering 38, with a registered tonnage of 146,000, which have been sunk, are not included in the above total.

The losses of the 300 warships are divided as follows, according to the German figures:

	Ships.	Tons.
England	177	688,390
France	48	109,000
Russia	36	91,540
Italy	25	76,450
Japan	8	26,875
United States, Portugal, Roumania	6	8,551

Thus the warship losses of the Entente would about equal the size of the German fleet at the beginning of the war, which was 1,019,417 tons.

Q.—What was the total loss of British warships?

	1914-1915.	1916.	1917.	Total
Gunfire	3	16	4	23
Submarined	12	3	10	25
Topedoed by surface ships	1	1	2	4
Mined	6	5	9	20
Collision	..	4	4	8
Internal Explo....	3	..	1	4
Foundered and stranded	5	..	..	5
Total	30	29	30	89

Add 3 destroyers, the actual cause of whose loss—either mine or submarine—is uncertain. This estimate is made by one writer on naval topics.

A list printed in the *United States Naval Institute Proceedings* for January, 1918, gives as the British naval losses: 2 dreadnaughts, 12 battleships, 13 armored cruisers, 10 light cruisers, 44 destroyers and torpedo-boats, 15 auxiliary cruisers, 8 transports, and about 20 small vessels (coast guard, etc.), making 124 in all, with 14 submarines in addition.

Q.—What naval strength have the neutrals?

A.—Switzerland, of course, has no ships. Holland proposed recently to build nine dreadnaughts, but she had only nine coast defense battleships in 1917, some cruisers, and forty torpedo-boats; also six submarines, mostly old. Norway, likewise, intended to build eight great

battleships, but relied actually on a few gunboats and 37 torpedo-boats. Sweden had a dozen coast defense vessels, 53 torpedo destroyers, and three submarines, but during the war added a swift cruiser of 7,000 tons to her fleet. The Spanish navy consisted of three small dreadnaughts of 15,400 tons, and half a dozen old cruisers, but an ambitious building program was begun after the war started.

Q.—Is there great difference between British battle cruisers and armored cruisers?

A.—Yes, in size and speed, but especially in gun power. The latest of the British armored cruisers, the *Defence,* was 14,600 tons, had a speed of 23 knots, and mounted four 9.2-inch and ten 7.5-inch guns. The German *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* were of this type, but smaller, 11,400 tons, and eight 8.2-inch guns. The *Australia,* one of the smaller battle-cruisers, displaced 18,800 tons, and had a designed speed of 25 knots, which has been considerably exceeded. She carried eight 12-inch guns, and much heavier armor than the *Defence.*

Q.—Is the British super-dreadnaught much heavier than dreadnaughts?

A.—Yes, very much so. The difference between the two types is in fact greater than between the most recent pre-dreadnaughts and a dreadnaught. The first all-big-gun ship was the British *Dreadnought,* which has given the name to this class of battleship. Admiral Fisher was responsible for her, and the experience of the Russo-Japanese war was the direct cause of her building. The naval battles in that war proved that a heavily armored ship, with big guns, was the ship of the future. The heavily protected Russian *Czarevitch* survived the smashing gunfire of the Japanese fleet, and was the only Russian ship to escape, those less well armored being sunk. The *Dreadnought* was 17,000 tons, was engined with turbines of 23,000 horsepower, which developed a speed of 21 knots; she had ten 12-inch guns. The *Lord Nelson,* the last of the pre-dreadnaughts, was 16,500 tons, 18 knots, had thinner armor, and only four 12-inch guns, but carried also ten 9.2-inchers. The difference between the two was not very great.

The British call this type "dreadnought." The American custom is "dreadnaught."

Q.—Why have British warships not operated in the Baltic?

A.—Because the entrance to the Baltic is a "bottle-neck" passage. The British fleet would have to force this very narrow entrance between Denmark and Sweden at immense risk, for the narrowest part of this strait (the Cattegat) is so tight that it is only a ferry-trip from Copenhagen in Denmark to Swedish Elsinore or Malmo.

Since it would be quite impossible for the British fleet to advance through such a waterway in battle-formation, the German fleet in the Baltic could practically select its own way of defense and attack.

Q.—Is this all that keeps British ships out?

A.—Furthermore, the German ships could pour out of the Kiel Canal into the North Sea, steam northward and close the Cattegat from outside after the British fleet had entered, thus locking it up. This would mean that a foray into the Baltic might, even if successful against German forces in the Baltic, end in the total loss of the British ships.

Apart from these two decisive factors, a major naval operation in the Baltic is practically prohibited by the shoal nature of that sea and its extremely intricate and dangerous channels. Fighting at the terrific speed of a modern naval engagement, the dreadnaughts would almost inevitably run aground sooner or later.

Q.—How large a fleet had the Russians in the Baltic?

A.—Before the war began the Russian fleet in the Baltic consisted of four dreadnaughts, which had just been completed. They were all 23,000 tons, and carried 12-inch guns. There were in addition four pre-dreadnaught battleships. The oldest of these, the *Czarevitch,* was the largest ship the Russians possessed when they fought Japan in 1903. There were also six armored cruisers, one of which, the *Pallada,* was sunk.

Q.—Which ships did Japan give back to Russia?

A.—The ships "retroceded" to Russia were the battleships *Sagami* (ex-*Peresviet*) and *Tango* (ex-*Poltava*), and the cruiser *Soya* (ex-*Varyag*). These were all captured in the war of 1904-5.

Q.—Has Greece any fleet?

A.—During the Balkan wars the Greek fleet dominated the Ægean, owing to the

fact that in the *Georgios Averoff* the Greeks had a more powerful ship than anything Turkey possessed. This armored cruiser, of 9,680 tons, was the gift of the Grecian millionaire Averoff to the nation. Had this gift not been made the Balkan war might have taken a somewhat different course.

Q.—Has Greece any American battleships?

A.—Since that war the Greeks purchased the two 13,000-ton battleships, *Idaho* and *Mississippi*, from the United States, rechristening them *Kilkis* and *Lemnos*. They are only 17 knots, but both carry four 12-inch guns. They also ordered a battle-cruiser of 20,000 tons, the *Salamis*, from Germany, as a reply to Turkey's order for two dreadnaughts placed in Great Britain. The *Salamis* was acquired by Germany, and probably took part in the Jutland battle under another name.

Q.—What are the largest British naval guns?

A.—The 15-inch guns of the *Queen Elizabeth* and her sister ships were the largest known to be in use. Larger weapons have, however, been made, and may perhaps be mounted on some of the latest dreadnaughts. One 16-inch gun made at Elswick on the Tyne, weighs 105 tons, and fires a shell weighing 2,200 pounds, almost exactly a ton. The Krupp 16-inch gun weighs only 92 tons, and fires a 2,028-pound shell. Schneider, the French maker, has a 15.7-inch weapon, which weighs 102 tons, and has a projectile of 2,183 pounds.

Q.—How much does a British 15-inch gun weigh?

A.—From 90 to 95 tons. To quote Mr. Winston Churchill: "These guns have proved the best we have ever had. Accurate at all ranges, and exceptionally long lived." No fewer than 14 of the new British super-dreadnaughts are armed with this weapon. Its extreme range is 21 miles, but, owing to the curvature of the earth's surface, its effective range would be at the most half that. Even then the gunner would not see the ship he was firing at, which would be below the horizon. The gun would have to be laid by the direction from the lookout high up the mast!

Q.—Could the Germans convert existing 12-inch gun ships to 16-inch?

A.—It would be possible, but exceedingly difficult and complicated. At best it would be a patchwork affair. It would hardly be possible to mount two 15-inch guns where two 12-inch guns had been, and if only one of the larger types were placed where two of the smaller had been, the gain would not be enough. The entire mounting, magazine hoists, etc., would have to be altered—renewed, in fact.

Q.—Is the "Queen Elizabeth" a superdreadnaught or a battle cruiser?

A.—She is a superdreadnaught, but immensely bigger than the old *Dreadnought*. She and her sister ships, the *Warspite*, *Valiant* and *Barham*, displace 29,000 tons. Her oil-driven turbine engines develop 45,000 horsepower, and give her a speed of 22.5 knots. She has ten 15-inch guns. The *Tiger*, the largest British battle-cruiser before the war, is larger, 30,000 tons; her engines of 110,000 horsepower give her the immense speed of 31 knots, and she carries eight 13.5-inch guns.

Q.—Can naval guns be dismounted and used in the field?

A.—It is possible to use guns of comparatively small caliber in this way, as was done by the British during the Boer war. Some time ago it was stated definitely that the Germans were using some of their 11-inch naval guns among the dunes of Flanders, and had bombarded Dunkirk therewith. It is far more likely, however, that they used army siege guns. It was decided in March, 1918, to use some of our big naval guns on the French front, if necessary, presumably because the United States naval gun works had superior facilities for turning out the very large guns such as 16-inch.

Q.—How many rounds can a great naval gun fire before wearing out?

A.—Twelve-inch guns, and those of still larger size, can fire 90 full charges only. After that they are sent to the foundry, where they have a new core inserted, and can fire a further 90 rounds. By the time a gun had fired 180 rounds it used to be considered practically obsolete, but the war has vastly changed conditions and the reclaiming of great guns has advanced immensely.

In time of peace the big guns were naturally spared carefully and only a few full charges were fired in the course of a year. For practice, reduced charges were used, or a small-caliber gun attached to the big gun was fired.

Q.—What weight projectile do big guns fire?

A.—Twelve-inch guns fire projectiles weighing about 850 pounds; 15-inch guns up to 2,000 pounds.

A rough-and-ready rule for calculation is: Cube the caliber of the gun and divide the result by two. This rule would give you for a 12-inch gun: 1728 divided by 2 equals 864 (pounds).

Q.—Is it costly to fire these huge guns?

A.—The *Iron Duke* has ten 13.5-inch guns, and 16 6-inch guns. With all the guns in action she uses up powder and shot to the value of $50,000 a minute. The weight of her broadside is 14,000 pounds, or more than six tons.

Q.—What is the penetrating power of a twelve-inch gun?

A.—It will send a projectile through three feet of wrought iron at 5,000 yards. The latest 15-inch gun will perforate 42.5 inches of steel at its muzzle.

Q.—Was a German admiral in command of the Turkish fleet?

A.—The Turkish fleet, such as it is, was under the command of Admiral Souchon, who, despite his name, is a German.

Q.—What additions were made to the foreign fleets during the war?

A.—Particulars of the ship-building in Great Britain naturally were not published, but when war was declared there were several super-dreadnaughts of the *Queen Elizabeth* type building, a large number of light cruisers and many destroyers and submarines. In addition there were the Turkish and Chilean dreadnaughts which were taken over.

Among the French dreadnaughts were the six *Dantons*, assumed to be the equals of the dreadnaughts proper France then had in commission. The *Danton*, which gave its name to this class, was sunk on March 19, 1917, by a submarine. If the French ship-building program was adhered to, France in 1917 should have had nine super-dreadnaughts in addition to those in this list.

Particulars of the German ships built since the war began are not available.

Four Russian dreadnaughts were practically ready when the war broke out, and three others were building on the Black Sea. One of these has been reported sunk. Presumably the other two are in commission there.

If the Italian ship-building program was carried out, there should have been six more super-dreadnaughts in commission in 1917. One of the dreadnaughts in the list, the *Leonardo da Vinci*, was blown up.

Q.—What ships building for foreign powers did Great Britain take over?

A.—The dreadnaught originally ordered by Brazil, purchased from her by Turkey, which was just leaving for Constantinople. She has been re-christened *Agincourt*. The *Reshadieh*, another dreadnaught just completed for Turkey by Messrs. Vickers Ltd. Two large destroyers just ready for delivery to Chile, vessels with a displacement of 1,850 tons, and a speed of over 31 knots; also three monitors building for Brazil, each mounting two 6-inch and four 4.7-inch guns.

Q.—Were the Turks willing to allow their two battleships to be taken over?

A.—They objected strongly and, according to the British ambassador to Constantinople, the seizure was partly responsible for the Turkish entry into the struggle against the Allies. He strongly recommended that the British Government pay the Turks for the vessels, but the British Foreign Secretary objected on the ground that it was unwise to pay money to an obviously hostile State, and thus help to provide her with means.

Q.—Are the acquired Turkish ships powerful?

A.—The *Agincourt* is 27,000 tons and 22 knots. She has 14 12-inch guns. Originally ordered by Brazil, she was christened *Rio de Janeiro*. Turkey purchased her, on the stocks, and renamed her *Sultan Osman*. She and the *Reshadieh*, now called the *Erin*, were quite completed, and were running their speed trials when Germany declared war on Russia. It is said that Mr. Churchill purchased them on his own responsibility, and had a bad

time in Cabinet in consequence. Had he not done so at once, however, they would have left British waters, and would now be fighting for the Central Powers in the East. The *Erin* has 10 13.5-inch guns, and is 23,000 tons displacement.

Q.—What battleships were building in Europe for foreign powers?

A.—Two huge Chilean dreadnaughts were building at Newcastle; also a protected cruiser for Siam, and destroyers for Brazil and Chile. Germany was building several submarines for the smaller Powers, and also a few destroyers. In addition the Greek battle-cruiser *Salamis* was nearing completion in her yards.

Q.—Were these the only ships which Great Britain took over?

A.—No. In addition there were six Chilean destroyers, each of about 1,800 tons and 31 knots. Two of these have already joined the fleet. They are said to have been superior to anything of this type in the navy at that time, with the single exception of the *Swift* (2,170 tons). The Admiralty also took over three monitors building for Brazil, which have done excellent service off the coast of Belgium and elsewhere.

Q.—How was it possible for Great Britain to obtain warships from neutrals?

A.—Ships building in British shipyards are liable to purchase by the Admiralty, there being a provision in the agreement to that effect. Article 6 of the Neutrality in Naval War Convention states definitely that "the supply on any ground whatever, either directly or indirectly, by a neutral power to a belligerent power of ships of war or munitions of war of any kind is forbidden."

Q.—How many warships has Chile, and which are the largest?

A.—For a long time Chile rested satisfied with the two armored cruisers, *Almirante O'Higgins* (8,500 tons), and the *Esmeralda* (7,020 tons), completed for her in Great Britain in 1898 and 1897 respectively. Just before the war, however, she had ordered two great dreadnaughts of 28,000 tons in England. These were nearing completion when the war began, and were taken over by the British Admiralty. The only other large ship Chile possesses is the 24-year-old battleship *Capitan Prat* (7,000 tons).

Q.—What is the relative rank of the officers in the British navy and army?

A.—Admirals of the Fleet rank with Field-Marshals; Admirals with Generals; Vice-Admirals with Lieut.-Generals; Rear-Admirals with Major-Generals; Commodores with Brigadier-Generals; Captains with Colonels; Commanders with Lieut.-Colonels; Lieutenants (eight years) with Majors; Lieutenants (under eight years) with Captains; Sub-Lieutenants with Lieutenants; Chief Gunners with Second Lieutenants. The Navy is the senior service, and always takes precedence of the Army.

Q.—How many Australian-born men are there in the Australian and New Zealand navies?

A.—There is no New Zealand navy. New Zealand paid for the *New Zealand* battle-cruiser, but she is manned by a Royal Navy crew. There may be a small sprinkling of men aboard her born in New Zealand, but they would not amount to more than 2 or 3 per cent.

Q.—Are most of the officers in the Australian Navy English?

A.—Most of the officers are assigned from the Royal Navy. Nearly all of the executive officers belong to or have retired from the Royal Navy; a few have been entered into the Royal Australian Navy from the British merchant service. All the senior ranks of engineer officers are lent from the Royal Navy, but there are about fifteen Australian officers now serving who have been entered from the Australian Universities, and are holding responsible positions. All the surgeons, except the director of medical service, were obtained in Australia. Practically all the warrant officers belong to the Royal Navy, or served in the Royal Navy prior to joining the Royal Australian Navy permanently. As a general rule, petty officers and men with over four years' naval service are from the Royal Navy. All men with less than four years' service were obtained in Australia, but about 25 per cent of these were born in England, having originally come out as emigrants or as firemen, stewards, etc., on merchant vessels.

Q.—Who gave the naval order which "saved England from invasion"?

A.—Prince Louis of Battenberg it was who, on his own responsibility, in the absence of Mr. Churchill, ordered all ships to "stand fast" instead of demobilizing as ordered. Later the opposition press drove this highly efficient sailor from office.

Q.—What is a gun-layer?

A.—This is the British naval term for the sailor in a gun-crew who "lays" the gun—that is, points it when it is ready to fire. In the American Navy he is called "gun-pointer" and the position is one that is eagerly competed for and much envied.

Q.—What is the difference between a raider and an auxiliary merchantman?

A.—"Raider" is merely the descriptive word for a ship which preys on hostile commerce. It may be any kind of a vessel, a warship or an armed merchantman, which latter is usually called an auxiliary cruiser.

Q.—Could warships be protected with concrete?

A.—Some naval engineers have proposed systems for using concrete instead of armor. The essential idea is to use several layers of concrete between steel armor-plates. The concrete would have to be from 3 to 4 feet thick, and for such places as turrets there would be almost equal thickness of concrete and armor combined. The idea has not gone beyond theory.

Q.—Did the German Government force the Allies to put a neutral officer on hospital ships?

A.—The Germans declared in 1917 that they would accord safe passage through certain zones only on condition that a Spanish naval officer were on each ship to guarantee that the vessel was being used solely for the transport of sick and wounded. The British and French authorities finally agreed to the arrangement. Hospital ships have been attacked, however, since that time.

SOLDIERS OF THE ALLIES

Q.—Who spent the most money on armies before the war?

A.—Germany spent about $340,000,000 on her army organization in 1913-1914. Russia came second with about $330,000,000. France followed with $240,000,000, and Great Britain came next with $140,000,000. Austria was behind them all, spending "only" $120,000,000. Thus the comparative expenditures of the big opposing forces were: Allies $710,000,000 (about), Central Powers $460,000,000 (about).

Q.—What were the armies of the great Powers before the war?

A.—In 1913 the peace and war strengths were as follow:—

	Peace strength.	War strength.	Complete Mobilization.
Austria ...	435,000	1,820,000	3,500,000
France	700,000	1,400,000	4,500,000
Germany ..	840,000	1,500,000	4,350,000
Italy	250,000	800,000	3,220,000
Russia	1,000,000	2,855,000	5,400,000
U. S. A....	87,000	100,000	——

Q.—What is the total enrollment in the British armies?

A.—At the beginning of 1918 the total enrollment in the British Armies was 7,500,000 men. To this total England contributed 4,530,000; Scotland 620,000; Wales 280,000; Ireland 170,000; the dominions and colonies 900,000. The remaining 1,000,000, composed of native fighting troops, labor corps, carriers, etc., were from India, Africa and other dependencies.

Q.—How large are the armies in France and Belgium?

A.—When Germany's rush westward was stopped at the Marne in the autumn of 1914, France had 1,500,000 men in the fighting line and England scarcely 100,000. The Germans outnumbered them by a million men, the Allies' artillery was outranged, and they were deficient in aeroplane service. By 1918 the French army at the front had grown to 3,000,000 and the British army to 2,500,000, with the American soldiers coming in. The Germans are estimated to have a maximum of 4,500,000 on their west front. The Allies have also gained superiority in artillery.

Q.—How many soldiers were raised in Canada?

A.—Up to the end of 1917, 424,456 had been enlisted. Of these 329,943 had been sent across the Atlantic.

Q.—What are the military forces of the neutral countries?

A.—Switzerland has no permanent army to speak of. Her citizen soldiers number about 200,000. Particulars given as to the strength of the military forces vary considerably. The following is approximately correct:—

	Peace establishment.	War strength.
Spain	128,000	300,000
Holland	22,000	200,000
Denmark	14,000	83,000
Sweden	84,000	200,000
Norway	18,000	70,000

Q.—How were the British forces distributed in normal times?

A.—127,400 in the United Kingdom; 77,300 in India; 12,500 in Ceylon and China; 11,850 in South Africa; 6,500 in Egypt and Cyprus; 7,500 in Malta; 4,120 in Gibraltar; and 6,600 variously scattered *en route* to stations and in the Crown Colonies.

Q.—What troops had Great Britain in India?

A.—Besides the British regiments, 77,300 strong, there were 162,000 native troops, 28,500 military police, 96,400 volunteers, reserves, etc.

Q.—What were the Territorials?

A.—The "Terriers," as they were called, took the place in England of the old volunteers. Members of this force had to enlist for three years, and during that time were liable to be called upon for active service at home. Like our State militia, they could only be sent abroad if they volunteered. This they did almost in a body, and they were the first troops after the regulars to reach France.

Q.—How many "Terriers" were there?

A.—In April, 1913, there were 263,000. That is 50,000 less than the figures com-

puted for the entire "establishment." Recruiting was, however, brisk during 1913, and this deficiency was considerably reduced.

Q.—What was Great Britain's total effective force at the outbreak of war?

A.—596,000, made up as follows: Regiments in the United Kingdom, 127,400; Army reserves, 142,000; special reserves, 61,000; territorials, 263,000; and 3,000 more or less unattached. If, however, the British troops in India and oversea be included, and also the Indian Army, Great Britain had a total strength of just under a million men, and those were standing troops ready for instant service.

Q.—Are the Zouaves Frenchmen or colored troops?

A.—The Zouaves are the professional soldiers of France, and are basically Frenchmen. They were originally stationed in Northern Africa, hence the semi-Moorish uniform. They are long service men, and are not conscripted, but are much like the men who enlist in our regular army. As in our regular army, there may be (and are) Zouave regiments made of colored troops; but the Zouave organization is French, not foreign.

Q.—Has Portugal taken active part in the war?

A.—Yes. She has sent two full divisions to France since January 1, 1917, and a third division is being trained. In less than a year Portugal has furnished 75,000 soldiers, and has 100,000 more in reserve, trained. Her divisions are joined to the British forces.

Q.—What wages do the soldiers of the belligerents receive per day?

A.—Great Britain gives 1s. 2d. (29 cents); Germany, 5 cents; France, 3 cents; Canada, $1.12; New Zealand, $1.25; and Australia, $1.50. The rate of pay in the Austrian Army is about the same as in the German.

Q.—How would the daily army pay-bills of the nations compare?

A.—That of Great Britain probably would be about six times that of Germany, while Australia appears to be paying every day in wages twice as great a sum as that paid by the Kaiser to his millions of soldiers. The total under arms can, of course, only be estimated, as accurate particulars are not available. The daily wage bill probably is about as follows:

Germany, with, say, 5,000,000 in arms	$ 250,000
France, with, say, 3,500,000 in arms	105,000
Great Britain, with, say, 5,000,000 in arms	1,450,000
Australia, with, say, 300,000 in arms	450,000

Q.—How are the ranks named in the Indian army?

A.—Subadar, Captain; Jemadar, Lieutenant; Havildar, Sergeant; Naik, Corporal; Sepoy, Private of infantry; Sowar, Trooper of cavalry; Duffadar, Sergeant of cavalry.

Q.—Were all the soldiers sent from Australia Australian born?

A.—Some 75 per cent, it is believed, were born there, and 25 per cent were born outside of Australia, the great majority in Britain.

Q.—Were the Irish first to land on Gallipoli?

A.—They were the first to get ashore (on April 25, 1915), though parties of naval men had landed before for brief periods. The famous *River Clyde* had about 2,300 Irishmen on board, the Dublins and the Munsters, and two companies of the Hampshire regiment, who were brigaded with them. Some Dublins also landed in open boats. The Turkish positions had been shelled for hours by the British fleet, and the enemy had given no reply whatever. The moment the Irishmen approached the shore, however, rifles and machine guns and pom-poms opened fire, and they were practically wiped out. Of the thousand men who left the *River Clyde* in the morning, 700 were killed, drowned or wounded. However, a landing was forced in the end. A Scottish officer who saw the amazing landing over submerged wire entanglements in face of the terrific fire said: "It is but the merest truth to state that there would be no Dardanelles campaign heard of to-day if it had not been for the extraordinary services of these Irish troops, white men every one."

Q.—How many British were at the battle of Mons?

A.—Sir John French had two army corps with him, roughly 75,000 men with 250 guns. During that fight and in the retreat to the Marne, some 17,000 men were taken prisoners, and the losses in killed and wounded were severe. When the offensive began at the Marne, French had been reinforced by a third army corps, but he probably had only 100,000 men under his command altogether.

Q.—Who is in command of the Polish Legion in the enemy's forces?

A.—Neutral papers have stated that the commander in 1916 was Field-Marshal Lieutenant von Durski, himself a Pole, who, after the campaign which drove the Russians entirely out of Poland, united the three brigades of the Polish Legions into one command. These brigades had been fighting in different districts previously. One brigade composed of Austrian Poles had been fighting continuously in Galicia. Another, consisting of men who had been dwelling in Poland proper, was engaged before Warsaw, and the third, consisting of German Poles, was operating farther north. The Polish Legions appear to have distinguished themselves greatly in the field.

Q.—What became of the Indian troops who were in France in 1915?

A.—They were withdrawn from the west front and sent to Egypt. From there some were sent to Mesopotamia, a few returned to India, and a few appear to have gone to German East Africa.

Q.—How many men were with General Smuts?

A.—According to General Botha, who gave the information to the House of Assembly in Capetown, 20,000 men were sent from South Africa to fight in German East Africa. Troops also went from India and a few from England. As the campaign progressed, however, many of the white fighters were withdrawn, and in the end the army consisted heavily of colored soldiers, the majority being African natives.

Q.—How large was the German army in East Africa?

A.—There were 2,000 whites. The number of natives is not known, but is estimated at about 20,000.

Q.—How many troops had von Mackensen to invade Serbia?

A.—It is believed that he had 400,000 men available. In addition a small Austrian army entered Serbia from Bosnia, and the Bulgarians swarmed across from the East. Probably by the time the conquest of Serbia was completed 750,000 enemy troops were in the country.

Q.—How many troops did India send to the front?

A.—The exact number has not been published, but in 1916 the Secretary of State for India said that when the war began, India offered seven and one-third divisions of infantry and five cavalry brigades. That would appear to mean about 140,000 infantry and 9,000 mounted men, with all necessary equipment, horses, guns, etc. In August, 1914, two divisions of infantry and one of cavalry were sent to France, and two cavalry brigades followed later. This would make in all 46,000 men. A division, 20,000 men, was sent to British East Africa. In October, when Turkey declared war, a division was sent to Mesopotamia, and another followed quickly, making 40,000 men there in all. In November, a brigade of cavalry and a division of infantry were sent to Egypt, 22,000 men. That is 128,000 fighting men. All these forces were transferred to their various destinations, complete with ambulances and general hospital. Presumably reinforcements have been sent to keep these armies up to full strength, although the Minister did not say this. Three divisions were mobilized to cope with the troubles on the northwest frontier, and, in addition, British infantry and artillery were set free for use outside of India.

Q.—What is the French Foreign Legion?

A.—The Foreign Legion is the name by which the world best knows the *Regiments étrangers* in the French service. This legion is composed of adventurous spirits of all nationalities, and has long been employed in colonial campaigns. For a long time it was stationed in Algeria. All sorts and conditions of men are to be found in it, for courage is practically the sole criterion that governs enlistment. No inquiry is made into their previous careers. French, British, Germans, Americans, Russians—in fact, almost every nationality is to be found in the ranks. The commanding officers are French. The Legion has done excellent

service during the great war, and has suffered very heavy casualties.

Q.—Has the color of the French uniform been changed since the war began?

A.—Yes. It has been done slowly. A year or so before the outbreak of war, great efforts were made to introduce a uniform less conspicuous than the blue and red that the Republic's soldiers had always worn, but the scheme met with so much opposition that it was dropped. The new uniform is bluish-green, but, according to statements in technical dye journals, it loses its color quickly. The steel helmet, which has replaced the jaunty cap, is an equally useful change.

Q.—How large is the Greek army?

A.—The peace strength in 1915 was 60,000 men. The war strength was estimated as about 300,000. During the recent Balkan wars, Greece put ten divisions of 12,000 men in the field. Most of the artillery was obtained in France, but the rifles were of Austrian make.

Q.—What is the population of Greece?

A.—The population of Greece proper, according to the census of 1907, was 2,630,000; at that time its area was 25,000 square miles. Since then the Epirus and many Ægean Islands have been added, and also portions of Macedonia, conquered from Turkey in 1913, which make the total area 42,000 square miles, and the total population about 4,800,000.

Q.—Do all the troops at the front wear khaki?

A.—The Americans and British do, and the Germans have a field-gray uniform, which is even less visible than khaki. The French troops now have dull green uniforms. The Russians had a dark green uniform with red epaulettes, the Belgians a bluish-gray outfit.

Our own troops have worn the standard light brown khaki-color service uniforms for more than 20 years. The American color, while apparently quite pronounced when the uniforms are seen in cities, is excellent for low visibility against nearly every kind of landscape.

Q.—Are the Austrians strong fighters?

A.—On the whole, the Austrians have made a poor showing in this war. Any victories have been due largely to German assistance or to the weakness of their foe. In one respect the Austrian armies have been second to none—in their heavy artillery. The excellent artillery service of the dual empire forced the Italians to fight their way inch by inch through the mountains, and at all times Italy has been inferior to her enemy in this arm. The Austrians have been especially ingenious in developing heavy trench mortars, some of them hurling hundreds of pounds of high explosive into the opposing trenches.

Q.—Did Portugal greatly help the Allies before she joined them?

A.—As soon as hostilities began she declared her willingness to throw in her lot with the Allies whenever Great Britain so desired. Germany, before Portugal formally entered the war against her, protested strongly against the way in which the Portuguese permitted the violation of their neutrality by allowing British warships to use their harbors and granting permission to British troops to cross the colony of Mozambique to attack German East Africa. The Kaiser also protested against Portugal's practice in allowing Great Britain to use Madeira as a naval base.

Q.—What is meant by the "Battalion of Death"?

A.—A fighting legion of women and girls of all classes in Russia, organized in 1917, and commanded by Madame Botchkalov, a Russian revolutionist. They became a part of the Russian army and took brilliant part in several engagements.

Q.—Did the Vatican spread disruptive propaganda among the Italian troops?

A.—The New York newspapers of January 30, 1918, published the following statement:

Denials from the Pope's Minister of Foreign Affairs, the Prime Minister of Italy, and others that the Pope was responsible for spreading disruptive propaganda or for the Italian disaster were made public by Adrian Iselin, Chairman of a committee of Catholic laymen.

This information was contained in a letter by F. C. Walcott of the United States Food Administration, in retracting a statement which he had made.

Mr. Walcott said:

"My statement attributed to the Pope a measure of responsibility for the Italian disaster, and for the disruptive propa-

ganda which had brought it about. I repeated thoughtlessly and without previous reflection a rumor I had heard, which I had not verified, and which I am now convinced and believe was untrue. I have since read the categorical denial of Cardinal Gasparri, the Pope's Minister of Foreign Affairs, and the denial of Cardinal Bourne in London, and I have also read the statement recently made by Signor Orlando, the Prime Minister of Italy, in the Italian Chamber of Deputies.

"I therefore feel that it is my duty to retract the statement I made in regard to the Pope, which I do without reserve, and I would like to correct the unfortunate and erroneous impression my remarks tended to create."

Q.—Did the Pope induce the Turks to respect British graves on Gallipoli?

A.—Yes. He communicated with the Turkish Government in the matter, through the Apostolic Delegate at Constantinople. Enver Pasha, in reply, assured him that the graves and the religious emblems that adorned them would be carefully protected. As a mark of his esteem for the Pope he had photographs taken of the graves and sent to Rome.

Q.—What is the origin of the word "Anzac"?

A.—It was a composite word used as the name of the British colonial troops in the romantic, though unsuccessful, Gallipoli undertaking. The men were from Australia and New Zealand, and, as their organization was officially known as the Australian-New Zealand Army Corps, the initial letters of this long title were put together to form the new word.

Q.—What is the fate of a captured newspaper correspondent?

A.—The enemy should treat him as a prisoner of war, provided he can produce or obtain a certificate from the military authorities of the army he was accompanying.

Q.—What is the fate of a non-combatant with arms in his hands?

A.—The rules of war permit his being shot without mercy. His position is a little better now than it was before the Hague Conference of 1907. It was agreed there that if he carries arms openly and respects the laws and customs of war, he must be regarded as a belligerent. He must, however, wear some sort of a uniform or a badge, which can be recognized at a distance, and which cannot be removed at will. This was urged by England and France, who desired to legalize the position of volunteers and irregulars, who previously were only entitled to be regarded as belligerents by the courtesy of their foe.

Q.—If a civilian, to defend his home, used a rifle, would he be shot if captured?

A.—Certainly he would.

Q.—But is that not murder?

A.—War, says General Sherman, is hell. But the rule forbidding civilians to resort to arms is absolutely necessary for the protection of all non-combatants. If civilians were permitted to fight, no troops would venture to enter a village or town until they had killed or driven out everyone in it. The troops alone must carry on war. The rest of the nation must remain at peace.

Q.—Have reprisals in previous wars brought about desired results?

A.—As a general rule, they have failed entirely, but in previous wars only a very small part of the entire communities of the countries at war were at all concerned. In *The Laws and Usages of War,* issued by the British War Office in 1914, various examples are given. One occurred during the war between Britain and the United States, a hundred years ago. It reads as follows:

"In 1813 the British Government having sent to England to be tried for treason 23 Irishmen naturalized in the United States who had been captured on vessels of the United States, Congress authorized the President to retaliate. Under this act, General Dearborn placed in close confinement 23 prisoners taken at Fort George. General Prevost, under the express direction of Lord Bathurst, ordered the close imprisonment of double the number of commissioned and non-commissioned United States officers. This was followed by a threat of unmitigated severity against American citizens and villages in case the system of retaliation was pursued. Mr. Madison retaliated by putting into confinement a similar number of British officers taken by the United States. General Prevost immediately re-

taliated by subjecting to the same discipline all his prisoners. A better temper, however, soon came over the British Government . . . and the prisoners were released on both sides."

In this connection, it is worth noting that at the conference in 1917 between British and German delegates at The Hague it was decided that all reprisals should be abandoned, and both sides undertook to withdraw all prisoners from the war zones in the west.

Q.—How do people in the conquered French provinces obtain news?

A.—The Germans publish a newspaper called *Gazette des Ardennes,* 100,000 copies of which are circulated, chiefly through the post, three times a week.

Q.—Will the shell-filled battlegrounds not be dangerous for farmers?

A.—The danger has been realized. Unless something is done it would be quite possible for a ploughman to strike a shell with sufficient force to kill him or blow his horses to pieces. Various solutions of the problem have been suggested. A French scientist has perfected an electrical instrument which will give warning when a mass of metal is near. The apparatus requires the services of two men. They can explore an acre thoroughly in about an hour, and discover every shell near enough to the surface to do any harm.

Q.—What is the British law referred to as "Dora"?

A.—"Dora" is the nickname or abbreviation for the Defence of the Realm Act.

Q.—How many English horses were bought for war?

A.—The figures for 1916 show that during that year 400,000 horses had been purchased at a cost of almost $100,000,000, which works out at an average of nearly $250 each.

Q.—Is it true that the English censor expurgated Kipling's verse?

A.—He cut out a couple of words from a quotation from Kipling's Recessional, which a correspondent at the front was ill-advised enough to put in one of his despatches. The particular lines which fell under the censor's ban were:

"The tumult and the shouting dies
The captains and the kings depart."

The censor put his pen through "and the kings," for it was obviously dangerous to refer to the movements of kings in this reckless way! Curiously enough Kipling got into trouble over the same pair of lines fifteen years ago. It was the censors of language, the grammarians and their devoted followers who pitched into him then, and they objected to the first line on the ground that it is customary to provide a plural subject with a plural verb. The Kiplingites rushed to the defense of their master, and argued that tumult and shouting meant the same thing, and that the subject was "psychologically singular."

Q.—What do the letters behind English names mean?

A.—A few of the most usual are abbreviated as follows: O.M. signifies Order of Merit, and is the only honor conferred without the recipient's consent having first been obtained; K.G., Knight of the Garter; K.T., Knight of the Thistle; K.P., Knight of St. Patrick; K.C.B., Knight Commander of the Bath; G.C.B., Knight Grand Cross of the Bath; C.B., Companion of the Bath; K.C.S.I., Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India; C.S.I., Companion of the Star of India; G.C.M.G. and K.C.M.G., Knight Grand Cross and Knight Commander respectively of St. Michael and St. George; C.M.G., Companion of that Order; G.C.I.E. and K.C.I.E., Knight Grand Cross and Knight Commander of the Indian Empire; C.V.O., Commander of the Victorian Order; D.S.O., Distinguished Service Order. The above are given in order of precedence. Other letters used are: P.C., Privy Councillor; V.C., Victoria Cross; L.H., Legion of Honor.

Q.—Who were the Franc-Tireurs?

A.—They were irregular bands of Frenchmen who waged a guerilla warfare against the German invaders in 1871. The Germans did not recognize them as belligerents unless they wore a uniform. When caught without one, they were summarily shot. The shooting of non-combatants who have taken up arms is the military act of force which gives rise to the wildest stories of cold-blooded murder in all wars.

RAVAGED BELGIUM

Q.—Did Germany issue an ultimatum to Belgium?

A.—Yes. At 7 p.m., on August 2, 1914, Herr Von Bülow delivered Germany's ultimatum, which was in effect an announcement of Germany's intention to violate Belgium's neutrality forcibly if necessary. Belgium's resolve to uphold her own neutrality was given to the German ambassador within twenty-four hours. Germany, however, had not waited for a response, but had already invaded Belgian soil at Vise.

Q.—Did Germany ever confess that entrance into Belgium was a violation of treaty?

A.—The German Chancellor acknowledged the entrance into Belgium as a violation of treaty and characterized it as a "wrong dictated by military necessity." The Kaiser in a message to President Wilson, dated August 10, 1914, through Mr. Gerard, speaks of it as "Belgian neutrality which had to be violated by Germany on strategical grounds."

Q.—Did the United States acknowledge the right of Germany to annex Belgium?

A.—No. Mr. Whitlock remained accredited to the Belgian government. Germany holds the occupied part of Belgium by martial law alone.

Q.—Who was Belgian prime minister at outbreak of war?

A.—Baron de Brocqueville was the Premier and Minister of War. These two offices are vested in one minister.

Q.—Under what rule is Luxembourg at present?

A.—German troops invaded Luxembourg on Sunday morning, August 2, in order (according to the German government) to assure the use of the railways, which had been leased to Germany, and they now occupy it.

Q.—Is Luxembourg a neutral still?

A.—Probably she is, technically. Luxembourg protested against the violation of its neutrality and against the expulsion of the French ambassador on August 4. But the duchy is said to have received about $256,000 indemnity, because it refrained from armed resistance, and acceptance of this may be held to have clouded the title to neutrality. However, Luxembourg appears still to be considered neutral and independent. Its ruler is Grand-Duchess Marie-Adelaide.

Q.—What became of English and French properties in Belgium?

A.—The American ambassador, Mr. Whitlock, assumed the French and British legations as well as the German and Austrian, protecting as best he could all their interests. The Germans, however, have shown small regard for the property or rights of any other nation, enemy or otherwise.

Q.—Was Brussels besieged by the Germans?

A.—No. Mr. Whitlock, the American ambassador, realizing the futility of attempting a defense urged upon the Belgian General Staff that they surrender the city without resistance, hoping thereby to save not only the lives of the inhabitants, but the historic buildings, art treasures, etc. The Germans took the city without a siege on August 20, 1914.

Q.—Was Belgium an entirely independent country?

A.—Belgium is an independent limited monarchy with a national existence dating to 50 B. C. Julius Cæsar speaks of the Belgians as "The bravest of the Gallic tribes." Belgium has a king, a house of Parliament, consisting of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies elected by popular suffrage. Her cities have burgomasters (mayors), and there are three powerful political parties: Catholic, Liberal, and Socialist. Belgian neutrality was guaranteed by England, Russia, France and Germany as a protective measure against invasion by each other.

Q.—Are the Belgians a homogeneous race?

A.—There are two distinct peoples in Belgium—the Walloons and the Flemings. The Walloons dwell in the Provinces of Hainault, Namur, Liége, and parts of Luxembourg and South Brabant. A few

live in the French departments of Nord and Ardennes. As the name indicates, they were originally strangers in the land —the Welsh of the country. They resemble the French in vivacity and adaptability. There were about 2,600,000 of them, and their native tongue is French.

The Flemings live in Flanders, and at one time were an important industrial autonomous community. Their country was bounded by the Scheldt, the North Sea, and the Somme, and has always been much fought over, but, nevertheless, has always preserved active industrial interests. About 3,500,000 Flemings lived in Belgium. Their language may be described as a sort of southern Dutch. Some 2,000,000 speak nothing else, but a large number speak both Flemish and French.

Q.—Has there actually been a movement for Flemish separation?

A.—Yes. During 1917 a party was formed in Flanders under the name "Activists." Meetings were held and delegates were elected. The separation of Flemish Belgium and Walloon Belgium was proclaimed and the promoters of the movement organized what they appear to have claimed was in effect a government. The reports about it were meager, fragmentary, and somewhat contradictory. It seemed pretty clear, however, that the "Activists" did not contemplate a sundering of Belgium, but worked on the lines of establishing more or less autonomous governments within Belgium of the two races. They went so far as to designate capital cities for each of the two divisions. There was violent protest from many prominent Belgians such as Cardinal Mercier, Belgian civil authorities, etc.

Q.—Did the Belgian authorities acknowledge the separation?

A.—No. In February, 1918, the Belgian Court of Appeals in Brussels ordered the prosecution of the "Activists" (as the Flemish promoters of the movement called themselves) for treason in plotting against the form of government established by the Belgian Constitution. Two of the leaders were arrested.

Q.—Were the Belgian courts actually in force?

A.—Evidently so, for the process of the court was executed. However, the Germans did take a hand then. They declared that the Belgian judges had exceeded their authority, and finally, when it appeared that the two arrested men were to be condemned, they ordered their release. The judges refused, and they were arrested in their turn.

Q.—Would the Flemings and Walloons naturally wish to separate?

A.—The present movement most probably was deliberately fostered by the Germans. But Flemings and Walloons have from time immemorial had decidedly diverging views and aspirations. The Flemings had felt for many years that they were being dominated unduly by the Walloons. Some years before the war, there was a great "Flemish revival," led by such men as Huysmans. It was largely in the direction of reinstating Flemish literature and language.

Q.—Was Belgian neutrality different from other neutrality?

A.—Yes. The neutrality of the big nations like the United States, Great Britain, Germany, etc., in case of a war between other nations, is something for each to decide for itself. It may remain neutral or not just as it chooses. If it chooses not to be neutral, it must, of course, accept the risk that goes with its position, but it has the right to do what it wishes. Belgium was different from this; Belgium's neutrality was an obligation on her part. She was bound by treaty to maintain her neutrality. It was a contract between herself and Great Britain, France and Germany; and these powers, in turn, agreed to respect her neutrality and to prevent any violation of it by anybody.

Q.—Suppose Belgium, without being invaded, had helped the Allies?

A.—It would have been a clear violation of her obligation, and Germany would then have been in position to invade Belgium legally. Under a strict interpretation of the agreement, it might even be held that Belgium had not the right that other neutral countries had, to permit the transport across her territory of supplies that were contraband.

Q.—May other neutral nations permit transport across their territory?

A.—They may permit the transport of contraband of war, and even munitions,

providing they are shipped in the regular way as freight. But, for instance, they could not legally permit a belligerent to transport a single machine gun, or any other material of war, with his own people or soldiers; nor could they permit any belligerent to transport any of his own actual military equipment and supplies across their territory, even though it were only a few hundred yards. They may permit the civilians of belligerent countries to move as they please; but they may not permit soldiers to use their territory at all.

Q.—Did the powers guarantee Belgian neutrality for her sake?

A.—No. So far as Belgium's own interests were concerned, the big nations of Europe did not trouble themselves about her, any more than they troubled themselves about Holland, Denmark, Switzerland and so forth. The only reason for the neutrality convention over Belgium was her strategic position. It was such that it was equally dangerous to each big nation, because it offered a possible route of invasion or attack.

Germany wanted Belgium neutralized in order to prevent France from coming through. France wanted the neutralization to block Germany. Great Britain wanted it to protect her Channel approaches against either German or French attack from the Belgian coast.

Q.—Has Belgium been used as a battlefield often?

A.—Every time there was war in western Europe Belgium was a scene of either battles or army-movements, with the exception of the Franco-Prussian War, when the neutralization agreement was reaffirmed and adhered to.

The French and British Wars, seventeenth and eighteenth century, were largely fought on Belgian territory. Many of the famous European battles were around Belgian towns—the Battle of the Spurs (1302), Courtrai; Bruges (1745, 1794), occupied by French; Brussels, French, Spanish and Austrian wars; Tournay, English and French (1709); Louvain taken by French (1792, 1794); Liége taken by Marlborough (1702), by French (1792); Lierre taken by Marlborough (1706); Namur bombarded by Allies against Napoleon (1704); Tirlemont, Austrians and French (1793, 1794); Roulers, Austrians and French (1794); Waterloo, defeat of Napoleon (1815). There have been many more. Almost all the line held now by the opponents in Belgium has been the scene of many campaigns.

Q.—Would it be cheaper for Germany to restore Belgium than to continue the war for a week?

A.—The very lowest estimate of Germany's war-cost was $127,000,000 a week. That estimate was made early in 1917, before we entered the war, and it did not take into account the steadily rising cost week after week. It is fair to assume that even if the German expenses are less than those of the Allies, the weekly cost in March, 1918, had risen to $140,000,000 at least. Assuming that Liége, Louvain, Tournai, Courtrai and Vervieres had been entirely destroyed (which is not correct, as the destruction is only partial), Germany could probably pay the total value of these five cities alone out of three weeks' war-costs. An estimate of the values of five of our very important New England manufacturing towns (calculated in 1915 by military experts to estimate the possible cost of invasion to America) gives their value as $483,000,000.

Q.—What damages could Germany pay Belgian sufferers with one week's war-cost?

A.—She could pay each and every inhabitant of Vervieres, Louvain, Tournai, Courtrai, Namur, Mons and Charleroi almost $1,000.

She could pay for almost all the forests of Belgium (estimating their value as based on the Belgian revenues from forests products). Or she could pay damages amounting to more than $10,000 for every square mile of Belgian territory. Or she could pay three times over for every bit of live stock that existed in Belgium before the war.

Q.—How many houses were destroyed in all Belgium?

A.—According to a report issued officially by the Belgian Government, the total number of buildings destroyed in the whole country was estimated on May 1, 1916, as 43,198.

Q.—Were these all destroyed purposely?

A.—The Belgian official commission said in its report that it was not possible to make distinction between build-

ings destroyed by acts of war and those which were destroyed as punishment for alleged hostile acts of the population. The report added: "It can be admitted at once that the destruction of buildings in West Flanders is due almost entirely to bombardments, and it is estimated, on the other hand, that at least 20,000 buildings in the rest of the country have been set afire by the German armies under pretext of reprisals."

Q.—What sum would cover the damage to the destroyed property?

A.—Assuming that all the 43,198 destroyed buildings in Belgium had been destroyed by the Germans, and assuming that each building was worth $10,000 (which is a valuation wildly beyond the possible actual values, since most of the houses were small village houses), the total sum needed to pay for the destruction would be $431,980,000. Three weeks' war-cost at $140,000,000 a week would pay even this high sum. If we estimate an average value of $2,000 a house (still fairly high, but approximately near actual facts), we would have damages amounting to $86,396,000—payable out of 4½ days' war-cost.

Q.—How big is Belgium?

A.—11,373 square miles. Holland is 12,628 square miles. Germany is 208,780 square miles. France is almost exactly the same size as Germany, viz., 207,054. If she regains Alsace-Lorraine she will be larger than the German Empire by 9,000 square miles.

Q.—Was Antwerp fortified?

A.—It was regarded as the strongest fortress in the world. Five years before the war it was decided to spend $20,000,000 on remodeling the forts, and providing new armaments. In addition to the great protecting forts, the town was encircled by ramparts, and completely surrounded by wide channels of water. Powerful forts covered the Scheldt (which is also called the Escaut until it reaches the Dutch frontier). As we know, the forts, deemed impregnable, were battered to bits by the huge German howitzers, their own guns being of too short a range to reply.

Q.—Was Antwerp the greatest seaport in the whole world?

A.—New York handled a couple of hundred thousand more tons in 1913, but for a long time Antwerp has been first. The recent immense growth in tonnage of the transatlantic liners has given New York her premier position. The figures are interesting:

	Entered.	Cleared.
New York	12,763,765	13,549,138
Antwerp	13,233,677	13,272,665
Hamburg	11,830,949	11,946,239
Hong Kong	11,138,527	11,142,117
Rotterdam	10,624,499	10,609,814
London	10,800,716	8,748,008
Monte Video ...	8,244,375	8,121,543
Marseilles	8,051,321	8,198,874
Singapore	7,737,785	7,717,691
Cardiff	6,236,944	9,168,115
Liverpool	7,253,016	7,446,873
Colombo	7,074,152	7,073,170
Rio de Janeiro.	5,212,713	5,198,784
Shanghai	4,183,528	4,155,152

Q.—In ordinary times is Belgium self-supporting?

A.—Not by a very large margin. In times of peace Belgium, like Great Britain, was obliged to import large quantities of foodstuffs, almost two-thirds, in fact, of the total consumption. It is obvious enough, therefore, that if the Belgians are to exist, large quantities of food must be sent them from outside.

Q.—How many Belgian refugees were still in Holland in 1917?

A.—According to the last official report, January, 1917, less than eighteen thousand were then in Holland who were dependent on Dutch hospitality. An equal number were estimated to be there, also, who were paying their own expenses. During the German invasion it is said that a million refugees reached Holland from over the border, but many soon returned to Belgium, and many crossed to England. During 1915 Holland spent $3,500,000 for the maintenance of refugees.

Q.—Who was Edith Cavell?

A.—She was an Englishwoman, directress of a large nursing home at Brussels, Belgium.

Q.—Why was she executed by the Germans?

A.—On Aug. 5, 1915, she was arrested by the German authorities and confined in the prison at St. Gilles on the charge that she had aided stragglers from the Allied armies to escape across the frontier from Belgium to Holland, furnishing them with money, clothing and information concerning the route to be fol-

lowed. Miss Cavell frankly admitted that not only had she helped the soldiers to cross the frontier, but that some of them had written her from England, thanking her for her assistance. This last admission made the case more serious for her, because if it had been proved only that she had helped men to cross the frontier into Holland, she could have been sentenced only for a violation of the passport regulations, and not the "crime" of assisting soldiers to reach a country at war with Germany.

Q.—Was it right to call her a spy?

A.—No. Technically, under remorseless application of the exceedingly stern rules of war, her case would come under the general definition of "war-espionage." But she certainly was not a spy in the common meaning of the word. She was a noble, brave woman, whose name will ever be cherished.

The sentence of death had heretofore been imposed only for cases of actual espionage, and Miss Cavell was not accused by the German authorities of anything so serious. It was only when public opinion had been aroused by her execution that the German Government began to refer to her as "the spy Cavell."

At 5 o'clock on the afternoon of October 12th, Miss Cavell was sentenced to be shot and she was executed before daybreak of the next day.

Q.—Was any effort made by the American Legation to stay the execution of Miss Cavell?

A.—Yes. As the American Legation was entrusted with the British interests in the occupied portions of Belgium, the American Minister and his staff tried their utmost to get the German authorities to agree to allow the legal counselor of the Legation to consult with Miss Cavell and, if desirable, entrust someone with her defense. This was not allowed and, although frantic efforts were made to get the authorities to delay sentence, nothing could be accomplished.

Q.—By how many men was Liége defended?

A.—About 20,000 Belgian soldiers were in the fortification scheme of Liége, a territory of about thirty miles.

Q.—How many men did Belgium have at the front during the invasion of her country?

A.—Belgium had probably about one hundred thousand men at the front during the invasion.

Q.—Did Gladstone ever uphold disregard of treaties?

A.—This is what Mr. Gladstone said in Parliament in 1870: "I am not able to subscribe to the doctrine of those who have held in this House what plainly amounts to an assertion that the simple fact of the existence of a guarantee is binding on every party to it, irrespective altogether of the particular position in which it may find itself when the occasion for acting on the guarantee arises. . . . The circumstance that there is already an existing guarantee in force is of necessity an important fact and a weighty element in the case, to which we are bound to give full and ample consideration. There is also this further consideration, the force of which we all feel most deeply, and that is, the common interests against the unmeasured aggrandisement of any power whatsoever."

Q.—What are The Hague Conventions?

A.—They are agreements reached between nations regarding certain international matters. The great ones are: (1) A convention for the pacific settlement of international conflicts. (2) A convention relative to the recovery of contractual debts. (3) A convention relative to the opening of hostilities. (4) A convention concerning the laws and customs of war on land. (5) A convention concerning the rights and duties of neutral States and individuals in land warfare. (6) A convention regarding the treatment of the enemy's merchant ships at the outbreak of hostilities. (7) A convention regarding the transformation of merchant ships into vessels of war. (8) A convention in regard to the placing of submarine mines. (9) A convention concerning the bombardment of undefended towns by naval forces. (10) A convention for the adaptation of the principles of the Geneva convention to maritime warfare. (11) A convention imposing certain restrictions upon the right of capture in maritime war. (12) A convention providing for the establishment of an international prize court. (13) A convention defining the rights and duties of neutral States in maritime war.

Q.—Is The Hague Tribunal elected annually?

A.—The Hague Tribunal is a permanent court of arbitration at The Hague, and is "competent for all arbitrations, unless the parties agree to institute a

special tribunal." Each signatory power selects four persons, at the most, whose tenure is six years and whose appointments are renewable. When it is desired to have recourse to arbitration under The Hague convention, a special tribunal is selected from this list. The members of the court enjoy diplomatic immunities. The United States was the first power to submit a case to The Hague court. This was the Pius Fund case, with Mexico.

Q.—What is meant by the "scrap of paper"?

A.—On August 4, 1914, the British Ambassador in Berlin, Sir Edward Goschen, justified the entrance of England into the war chiefly on the ground that Germany had violated the neutrality of Belgium. In his dispatch to the British Government, he reported his conversation with the German Chancellor, von Bethmann-Hollweg, who said: "Just for a word—'neutrality,' a word which in war-time had so often been disregarded—just for a scrap of paper Great Britain was going to make war on a kindred nation."

Q.—Was the "scrap of paper" story ever denied?

A.—The Committee on Public Information (Washington) says: "When the dispatch was published by the British Government, the Associated Press correspondent obtained an interview with the German Chancellor, who said that Sir Edward Goschen had misunderstood what he had said about the scrap of paper. The Chancellor maintained that what he had said was that England entered the war to serve her interests; and that among her motives the Belgian neutrality treaty 'had for her only the value of a scrap of paper.'"

Q.—Did Great Britain destroy the Danish Navy in time of peace?

A.—The British fleet, under Nelson, bombarded Copenhagen, partially destroyed the Danish fleet then at anchor in the harbor, and took possession of the rest.

A. Conan Doyle, writing in the *Fortnightly Review* (February, 1913), says of this:

"It must be admitted that the step was an extreme one, and only to be justified upon the plea of absolute necessity for vital national reasons. The British Government of the day believed that Napoleon was about to possess himself of the Danish fleet and would use it against themselves. Fouché has admitted in his Memoirs that the right was, indeed, given by a secret clause in the Treaty of Tilsit. It was a desperate time, when the strongest measures were continually being used against us, and it may be urged that similar measures were necessary in self-defense. Having once embarked upon the enterprise, and our demand being refused, there was no alternative but a bombardment of the city with its attendant loss of civilian life. It is not an exploit of which we need be proud, and at the best can only be described as a most painful and unfortunate necessity, but I should be surprised if the Danes, on looking back to it, judge it more harshly than some more recent experiences which they have suffered since then from their neighbors, the Germans."

Q.—Were any British soldiers in Belgium before the Germans?

A.—It was not until August 16, 1914, that the first British troops reached the Continent.

Q.—Did America by treaty pledge herself to the integrity of Luxembourg and Belgium?

A.—The United States never guaranteed Belgium or Luxembourg. She had nothing whatever to do with the Treaty of London, by which, in 1839, Great Britain, France, Prussia, Russia, and Austria guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium. In no treaty that the United States ever signed has it in any way undertaken to guarantee the neutrality of any European State. It is often asserted, even now, that the United States was, in some way, responsible by treaty for Belgium, but she had no more responsibility for that small kingdom than she has for Russia, France, Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, or any other country in Europe. She was, it is true, a signatory of The Hague Conventions, which, in general terms reaffirmed the inviolability of neutrals in war time, but in signing these she specifically declared that nothing in the Conventions should be binding on her if it involved a violation of the Monroe Doctrine, or would embroil her in European conflagrations.

LITHUANIANS AND POLES

Q.—Are the people of Courland, Livonia and Esthonia not Slavs?

A.—They are not. They are of a very distinct racial stock known as Letts. The Lettish people claim that they are among the oldest races of Europe, and there is foundation for this assertion. Ethnology finds that distinct Lettish characteristics (language, folk-lore, physical traits, etc.) justify the supposition that the Lettish racial history goes back four or even five thousand years.

Q.—Does this fact bear on the modern political situation?

A.—Yes. It was used by the Pan-Germans in their arguments to show why the Baltic Sea provinces were not truly a part of Russia—with the deduction, as the Pan-Germans saw it, that, therefore, they might "naturally" be made a part of Germany. The Germans did once rule them—very long ago.

Q.—Why should Germany desire the provinces?

A.—Largely because they contain the very useful seaport of Riga. In addition, the coast-line extends to the eastern end of the Baltic, and thus would round out German possession of the whole Baltic coast. Beyond this, their hold would thus extend to the mouth of the Gulf of Finland, commanding the approach to Petrograd.

Q.—Has Russia always owned the Baltic Sea territory?

A.—No. Lithuania belonged to Poland once. Russia obtained it in the Polish dismemberments during the eighteenth century.

Q.—Were the Baltic provinces ever independent?

A.—Only in a very general sense. They formed one state, Livonia, but in one way or another it was always ruled or tributary.

In 1561 the state was finally broken up, part (now belonging to the Russian province of Vitebsk) being annexed to Poland, part (Livonia and Esthonia) being appropriated by Sweden, and part (Courland) being constituted as a duchy under the suzerainty of the King of Poland. Thus, though the population remained very independent ethnologically, and still is composed of Letts and Esthonians, races of Finno-Lithuanian origin, the rulers were always aliens, ending with the Russians.

The Germans ruled the Baltic countries the longest and impressed themselves upon their culture most permanently of all. They came there in the thirteenth century, first as colonists and then in the garb of "Brothers of the Sword," a religious order created after the manner of the Teutonic Knights, as conquerors, followed by German merchants and artizans. All the chief cities—Riga, Reval, Dorpat—were founded by them, and Christianity was introduced.

Q.—Did Russia ever charge the provinces with being pro-German?

A.—Such charges were made, more or less vaguely, early in the war. The fundamental truth was, probably, that the Lithuanians were not very enthusiastic in their support of Russia. In addition, there was a very large population that was German-born or of German blood. Riga was full of German merchants, and its commercial and industrial activity had a decidedly German quality. It is, however, unlikely that the Lithuanians are inclined to become German. They are a race (or small nation) with powerful aspirations for political entity of their own.

Q.—Was Poland ever a very large nation?

A.—At the beginning of the Reformation in Europe (Luther's time, 1483-1536), the area of Poland was greater than that of Germany proper; that is, excluding the various Italian and Austrian portions of the Empire. The Poles were then, and remained for many generations, the most warlike nation in Europe in many senses, wonderfully brave, marvelously skilled in dashing warfare, particularly with cavalry, and extremely restless and fiery.

At one time their rulership extended from the Baltic to the Black Sea. They held Livonia, Esthonia and Courland on the Baltic, and Galicia on the Hungarian border, with such cities as Lemberg. They conquered a large part of the Ukraine, threatening the Tartars of the Crimea.

Incessant wars with the Cossacks of the Black Sea and the Don and with the Tartars did much to sap their national strength.

Q.—When was Poland broken up?

A.—Its downfall may be said to have begun when the Swedes and Russians broke into it in 1654 and conquered it. Its final doom came when continual wars ended in the famous agreement between Catherine II of Russia, Frederick II of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria to dismember the kingdom.

From that time Poland became subject to successive partitions. Between 1772 and 1795 it was thus divided and sub-divided, till Russia had all Lithuania, Prussia had what is now West Prussia and Posen, and Austria had Galicia.

In 1815, at the Congress of Vienna, there was a new partition by which Russia got the greater part of Poland. The Poles have rebelled several times (twice in the last century, 1830 and 1863), but their efforts were unsuccessful.

Q.—Was there a Duchy of Warsaw?

A.—Yes. After the eighteenth-century partitions, there still remained a "free Poland"—a small strip of land around Warsaw. With the fall of Napoleon and the Congress of Vienna, the freedom of the Duchy of Warsaw was guaranteed under the protection of Russia, but after the revolt of 1830, it was formally annexed and ruled from Petrograd. There have been many tumultuous days in Warsaw since. The "loyalty" of Poland in time of war has always been in question, for the Poles have always declared that they will be content with nothing short of a constitutional government of their own.

Q.—Did wars alone cause Poland's downfall?

A.—No. Its own inherent weaknesses were great factors. It was in the tyrannical grip of an aristocracy, consisting of nobles and a turbulent gentry. The serfs were reduced to the lowest position of any in Europe. The Diet or Parliament, which elected the King, often refused to grant the revenues and armies necessary for the public defense. A peculiar privilege, known as the *liberum veto*, by which any measure could be defeated by a single objecting voice, brought the legislature, as well as the monarchy, to a state of impotence. "The road to Warsaw" became a byword in Europe for "the road to national ruin."

Q.—What are the Ukrainians?

A.—"Ukraine" means border-land. The Ukrainians are known as Little Russians in Russia and as Ruthenians in Austria and Hungary. There are about 34,500,000, distributed as follows: southern Russia, 28,000,000; rest of European and Asiatic Russia, 2,000,000; Galicia, 3,500,000; Hungary, 500,000; Bukowina, 400,000.

The Ukrainians have asserted their right to independent existence for centuries. They claim that they own the land from the Carpathians to the Caucasus, extending well northward into Russia, including parts of Russian and Austrian Galicia and parts of what is known as Russian Poland.

They assert that the first alienation of territory occurred when the Poles conquered all western Russia from the Baltic to the Black Sea. Later, when the Poles were conquered in turn by the Russians, the Ukrainians became subject to Russia, but they have never lost their racial sense.

The country they claim is said to be the richest agricultural territory in the world. It contains the famous "black-earth belt" that stretches from the Carpathians to the Urals. Kiev and Odessa are among the big cities that are in this claimed territory.

Q.—Does the Ukrainian claim fall under the principle of self-determination?

A.—It does. But it is vastly complicated because of the political fissures between the people themselves. Thus, the extreme Ukrainians claim that all Russian Poland reaching to and beyond Brest-Litovsk is properly part of the Ukraine. But the Poles also claim this territory as distinctly part of their nationality. In addition, the Ukrainian feeling is strongest among the peasants, while the landholders, the nobles and the middle-classes are largely Polish in birth, political-national affiliation, or both.

Q.—Who are the Cossacks?

A.—They were roving brigands who inhabited what is now known as the Ukraine. Hunters and fishermen originally, the encroaching Turks and Tartars compelled them to take to arms to protect themselves. Later, becoming stronger, they carried the war into their

enemies' country, and harried them, carried on, indeed, a war of extermination. Curiously enough, they borrowed their name from the lower ranks of Tartar soldiery called *Kasaki,* a word meaning freebooters. The success of their raids induced them to go further afield, and, in time, they became dangerous to the settled western lands they should have protected from Turkish inroads.

Q.—Where did they come from originally?

A.—When Lublin and Lithuania were incorporated in Poland, in the sixteenth century, many serfs migrated from these provinces to escape the heavy taxes and the cruel rule of the Polish nobles. They settled along the Dnieper, and spread, in time, eastwards to the Don. On the former river they set up a sort of commonwealth, nominally under Polish domination. However, the relations between the Cossacks and the Poles were often strained, and finally religious differences led to open fighting. The Poles were, and are, Roman Catholics, and the Cossacks profess the Orthodox religion. This, at first, led to the loss of all the privileges the Cossacks had enjoyed. But, later, leagued with their old enemies, the Tartars, they defeated the Poles and established a brief independence. Finally they and their lands were incorporated in Muscovy, and they have been Russian ever since.

Q.—Do the Cossacks have special privileges?

A.—They still enjoy some of the privileges which were granted them when the migration from Lithuania took place. In return for these they are bound to give military service to the State for twenty years. They are scattered in ten separate districts, the most notable lying along the Don, the home of the Don Cossacks, who have played so prominent a part in Russian affairs since the Revolution. The Cossacks live in loosely cooperative communities, which own land given by the government. The primary unit is the stahitza, or village, which holds the land as a commune. These village communities elect assemblymen, who direct communal cultivation, education, and the like. The villagers appoint a supreme elder, and judges, who settle all minor disputes.

Q.—What kind of military service must they render?

A.—Every man must serve as a soldier from 18 to 38. For the first three years he undergoes training, for the next twelve he is on active service, and for the last five he is in the reserve. In times of peace, actually only about a third are on active service, and two-thirds remain at home. When war breaks out, however, all join the army at once. Every Cossack must provide his own uniform, equipment and horse. The State gives the weapons.

Q.—Are there many Cossacks?

A.—Over three million (half women). They put between 300,000 and 400,000 trained soldiers into the field. All of them live on the land. They lease their mines to outsiders, who also run most of the factories in their territories.

Q.—Are all Cossacks cavalrymen?

A.—Most of them are, only about 20,000 infantry being supplied by them. It is a common practice to call all Russian mounted men Cossacks, but it is incorrect.

Q.—Was Finland always Russian?

A.—Finland was a free country from its foundation (about eighth century) to 1293, when Sweden conquered it. In 1809 it was "united" to Russia, but it retained its Constitution and National Assembly until at a favorable moment, in 1899, Nicholas declared it wholly a part of the central government. Finland protested to the Great Powers that the act was a violation of its rights, but received no aid. At the time of the Japanese war, a general strike by all the laborers forced the government to grant demands for a constitutional assembly. After the crisis had passed, the assembly became a mere figurehead again.

The Finns, not being Slavic but allies in racial stock to the Magyars (both of Asiatic origin), never were willing to remain Russian. Soon after the Russian Revolution they proclaimed their independence, but the Russian Provincial government under Kerensky would not acknowledge it, holding that it was a matter for the Russian National Assembly to decide.

Q.—Was Finland's subjection due to Pan-Slavism?

A.—The incorporation of Finland and Poland both were part of the general movement of "Russification"; and an attempt to suppress racial differences and form one language, one church, and one government. In its wider aspect, it is called Pan-Slavism and includes the Slav races of the States in the Balkans. It first

appeared violently on the accession of Alexander III to the throne in 1881. The Russian Czar, like the former Popes of the Roman Catholic world, united in himself the rule of the Greek (Slav) Catholic Church and the temporal power over the vast areas of the Russian Empire.

Q.—Does Germany compel the Poles in Poland to speak German?

A.—It has been reported that she has done so, but the Germans have apparently tried to conciliate the Poles, and have promised them autonomy and control of their internal affairs. In pursuance of this policy no tribute appears to have been levied on any of the Polish towns captured.

The Germans tried to make the Poles in the Polish provinces of Prussia speak German, and even went so far as to punish school children who went on strike because they were compelled to learn their lessons in German.

The Russians have also systematically tried to stamp out the Polish language.

Q.—Are there many people in the Baltic provinces?

A.—Esthonia has an area of 7,600 square miles, with an estimated population of some half a million; Livonia, the largest of the three provinces, has an area of 17,500 square miles, with a population of close upon 2,000,000; and Courland has an area of nearly 10,500 square miles, with a population of about 800,000. The population is divided into Esths or Esthonians, and Letts. There is a percentage of Germans. The remainder of the population in the three provinces is made up of fragments of Finns, Russians, Jews, and Lithuanians.

The farmers are, for the most part, proprietors of very small parcels of land, the inadequacy of which compels them to do additional work for the German landowner as hired laborer or rent some additional land from him on the metayer system.

Q.—To what race do the Galicians belong?

A.—There are two distinct racial strains in Galicia, both Slavonic—the Poles and the Ruthenians. These people differ temperamentally, historically and in religion, the Poles being generally Roman Catholics, the Ruthenians Greek Catholics. In the world war the Polish Galicians, for the most part, are pro-Austrian, while the Ruthenian sympathies lean toward the Russians.

CLAMORING NATIONALITIES

Q.—What were President Wilson's peace principles affecting small nationalities?

A.—They were four clauses laid down by the President in a Message to Congress, delivered February 11, 1918, and they expressed the following:

1. Each part of the final settlement must be based upon the essential justice of that particular case, and upon such adjustments as are the most likely to bring a peace that will be permanent.

2. Peoples and provinces are not to be bartered about from sovereignty to sovereignty, as if they were mere chattels and pawns in a game, even the great game, now forever discredited, of the balance of power; but that,

3. Every territorial settlement involved in this war must be made in the interest and for the benefit of the populations concerned, and not as a part of any mere adjustment or compromise of claims among rival States; and

4. All well-defined national aspirations shall be accorded the utmost satisfaction that can be accorded them without introducing new or perpetuating old elements of discord and antagonism that would be likely in time to break the peace of Europe, and, consequently, of the world.

Q.—How many small republics have been declared in Russia?

A.—Up to March, 1918, three had declared themselves, and had made their declarations good by taking definite steps toward organization and toward foreign recognition. From half a dozen to a dozen other movements had either begun or were struggling along. Of these, the most important were the separatist movements of the Cossacks of the Don, and of the trans-Caucasus and Siberian provinces.

The three really important and decisive ones that played a big part in the settlement of peace terms, were the Ukraine, Finland and Lithuania.

Q.—When were the Russian republics proclaimed?

A.—The Ukrainian republic was proclaimed by the Central Parliament (Rada) on Nov. 20, 1917, and was recognized at the Brest-Litovsk peace negotiations. The same important step was taken by Finland, which formally declared its independence as a republic on Dec. 5, 1917, and was recognized by Norway and Sweden. Lithuania formally declared its independence of Russia on Jan. 8, 1918.

Q.—Did other nations recognize the new republics?

A.—No. They remained non-committal. In February, 1918, the Supreme National Council of Lithuania in Switzerland presented to the representatives of all neutral and belligerent nations a resolution adopted by the Vilna State Council, proclaiming the re-establishment of the independent status of Lithuania, with Vilna as its capital, but there was no response up to the time of Russia's signing of the peace treaty.

Q.—Did Petrograd recognize the Ukraine republic?

A.—No. Both the Kerensky and the Lenine-Trotzky revolutionary governments refused to recognize an independent Ukraine, an independent Finland, or independent Lithuanian States. They sent troops to Finland and the Ukraine. The Lenine-Trotzky Government ordered war on the Ukraine, and continued hostilities till they themselves signed a treaty of peace with the Central Powers and therein bound themselves to recognize the new republics.

Q.—Why did the Bolsheviki oppose the Ukrainians?

A.—The Bolsheviki claimed that the party in the Ukraine that had proclaimed independence was a party composed of the bourgeois population; and, as the Bolsheviki plan for Russia was to make it a republic of the proletariat, an attempt by the bourgeois to assert independence was just as obnoxious to them (and quite logically so) as if the old aristocracy had attempted a counter-revolution in Russia. In fact, the "counter-revolution" feared by the Bolsheviki is essentially a counter-revolution by the bourgeois. If the Russian question were a perfectly clear-cut issue between aristocracy and common people, the situation would be very simple. We would then have seen much less of these apparently contradictory actions.

Q.—What is the correct name of the Ukraine republic?

A.—The new republic has called itself the Ukraine People's Republic. The republic was first declared by the Rada, or national assembly, called by the Ukraine people. Subsequent to declaring themselves an independent state, the Ukrainians proceeded to conduct separate peace negotiations with the Central Powers, after the Russian Bolsheviki Government had broken off the first Russian negotiations.

Q.—How big is the Ukraine republic?

A.—It is a very big country, indeed, but its exact area had not been officially outlined when the treaty of peace was made. It is known, however, that it was the hope of the Ukrainian Rada to take in all the Ukrainian races and sub-races, and that this hope, if realized, would extend the new republic to the land of the Don Cossacks—as far east as the Caucasus, almost. Northward, it was desired to go as far as Brest-Litovsk, and even beyond, but the Poles immediately raised such a clamor that it was decided to settle that part of the frontier later. With the exception of Bessarabia on the west and what remains to Russia of the Caucasus on the east, this republic quite cuts the rest of Russia from the Black Sea.

Q.—When was the Ukraine peace treaty signed?

A.—It was signed in February, 1918, at Brest-Litovsk, with all the Central Powers. It provided for a peace without indemnities, and appointed a general western boundary for such part of the new republic as did not border on Austria-Hungary. As the northern limit of the western boundary runs into territory claimed by Poland, it was decided to leave its exact settlement to a commission.

Q.—What can the Ukraine give to Germany?

A.—Wheat, rye, barley, sugar (beet), meat of all kinds, iron, manganese, mercury, timber.

The Ukraine is the granary of Europe, despite the very easy-going and antiquated methods that obtain through a large part of its territory. Its output of wheat, rye and barley alone is one-third of that produced by all Russia. It has amounted in previous years to about 35 million pounds.

Q.—How soon could Germany draw wheat from the Ukraine?

A.—Of course, the crops are available only when the time of harvest comes. But it is well known that big stores were held there when the war began. One of the big reasons for the desperate Dardanelles enterprise was to open the straits and thus free the wheat crop, which would have fed the Allies and paid part of Russia's debts. How much of this is left and what condition it is in, is not well known. But there assuredly must have been some available when the Ukraine signed the peace treaty, for the Bolsheviki had been clamoring for a release of it for themselves.

A more immediate help is the meat which the Ukraine can furnish. Before the war the immense plains supported about 30 million cattle.

Q.—Where is the Lithuanian republic?

A.—It extends from Baltic Russia southward, expanding in the south to extend well into Russia. The area of the republic forms a sort of cushion around the north and east of Poland, separating it from what is left of Russia with a belt about 300 to 400 miles wide. It contains the four provinces of Kovno, Vilna, Minsk and Grodno.

Q.—About how big is this new republic?

A.—It contains about 82,000 square miles (about one-third larger than New England), and it has about 9 million population (which is also about one-third more than New England).

Q.—Does the Republic of Lithuania include the Baltic provinces?

A.—No. These were mentioned separately in the peace treaty between the Russians and the Central Powers. They were referred to as the States of Esthonia and Livonia.

Q.—What did the peace treaty say about the Baltic Sea provinces?

A.—There was a specific agreement as to the eastern boundaries of both Esthonia and Livonia, and Russia agreed to

evacuate them, while they were to be occupied by "a German police force until security is guaranteed by their own national institutions."

Q.—What is the State of Esthonia?

A.—It is one of the Russian Baltic Sea provinces inhabited by Letts and Lithuanians. These provinces run as follows, from west to east: (1) Courland, adjoining Germany, and containing the ports Libau and Riga; (2) Livonia, taking in the Gulf of Riga or part of it: (3) Esthonia, facing the Gulf of Finland, and extending toward Petrograd.

Q.—Did the treaty of peace make new boundaries?

A.—Apparently the treaty did not establish any very radically changed boundaries; but, of course, the radical change was that the treaty did accept the principle that Livonia and Esthonia were to be separated from Russia.

Q.—Was Courland not mentioned in the treaty?

A.—No, Courland was not mentioned, but there has long been a custom of referring to all three Baltic Sea Provinces under the general title "Livonia."

Q.—What presumably is the size of the Baltic Sea territory?

A.—The three Baltic Sea provinces—Courland, Livonia and Esthonia—thus separated from Russia, had, under the old subdivision in Russian Government apportionment, an area of 36,000 square miles—that is, they would compare about with Indiana in area. Their population is more dense than Indiana, being about 3 million.

Q.—Is the Dobrudja a Balkan State?

A.—No. It is merely a geographical area. The racial character of its very small population plays no part in the contest over this territory. Its value is due to its position on the Black Sea, and because the great commercial river of Europe, the Danube, empties through the Dobrudja into the Black Sea in a vast system of spreading deltas.

Q.—Just where is the Dobrudja?

A.—It extends along the western part of the Black Sea, from the Bulgarian boundary northward to the mouths of the Danube. It is entirely coastal, and, in a straight line, its Black Sea coast measures about 200 miles. It thus represented the entire Black Sea coast of Roumania.

Q.—Who owns the Dobrudja now?

A.—The Central Powers held it by conquest until early in March, 1918, it having fallen into their hands when they defeated and over-ran Roumania. In March, 1918, the Dobrudja passed to the Central Powers by cession, Roumania having signed a peace with them which gave them this territory as far as the Danube. That means all of it worth having.

Q.—Did the Central Powers assert any right except conquest?

A.—Yes. The claim to the Dobrudja was based on Bulgaria's claim to the southern part of it. Bulgaria owned this once, and lost it in the second Balkan War, when Roumania annexed this northeastern corner of Bulgaria, which she had long desired.

Q.—Does the loss of the Dobrudja shut Roumania from the Black Sea?

A.—Geographically, it shuts Roumania entirely off from the Black Sea, except for such trifling access as she could have through that part of Dobrudja north of the Danube, which remains to her. The deltas of the Danube, however, make all that territory swampy and difficult. The terms of peace, however, provide that "the Quadruple Alliance will provide and maintain a trade route for Roumania by way of Constanza to the Black Sea."

Q.—Where is Constanza?

A.—It is the best and biggest port on the Dobrudja Black Sea coast, and is situated about in the middle of that coast line. A railroad connects it with the various important Roumanian places and cities.

Q.—Does the Danube run through Roumania?

A.—Yes. After the Danube leaves the Austria-Hungarian boundary, it runs for a great distance along the Roumanian and Bulgarian boundary (in fact, forming the boundary), and then it swings sharply north through Roumania, running along the western side of the Dobrudja terri-

tory. It runs almost into Russia, but at the northern Roumanian territory it turns sharply eastward and empties in the Black Sea.

Q.—Will Roumania have access to the mouth of the Danube?

A.—She can hardly be shut off from using it, though she may be limited in her enjoyment of it. Under the arrangement that was in force before the war, all that part of the Danube from the deltas to the Roumanian cities of Braila and Galatz was under an international commission (Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Italy, Roumania, Russia and Turkey), which improved and maintained it.

Q.—What altogether did Roumania surrender by the peace treaty?

A.—Besides the Dobrudja, Roumania agreed by the peace treaty of March, 1918, to permit "frontier rectifications" between her boundary and that of Austria-Hungary. There were no indemnities and no other exactions of territory.

Q.—How much area did Roumania take from Bulgaria originally?

A.—Almost 3,000 square miles, with a population of about 300,000, most of whom were Turkish.

Q.—How much population has the whole Dobrudja?

A.—This one of the four historic divisions of Roumania contains about 381,000 people altogether, with Roumanians greatly in the minority. The population is mostly Turkish, Bulgarian, Tartar, Russian, and a fair sprinkling of German.

Q.—Did Roumania sign another treaty of peace?

A.—Yes. A few days after signing a treaty with the Central Powers, Roumania made peace with Russia, promising to evacuate all the occupied parts of Bessarabia, and agreeing that an international commission was to "take up points of conflict between the two countries," which was construed to mean that there was to be a discussion of division of Bessarabian territory.

Q.—How did Sweden lose Finland?

A.—As a result of many wars with Russia. She was forced to cede the Grand Duchy of Finland to the Czar in 1809. Though Russia had promised to respect the free institution of the Finns and to let them remain under their constitution, there soon began a series of reactionary changes till at last their constitution was boldly taken away, and they were reduced to a mere subject territory, greatly to their bitter indignation, for the Finns have long been noted for love of freedom and country.

Q.—Does Sweden not want Finland back?

A.—Sweden has sorely felt the humiliation of losing Finland, and the treatment accorded to the Finns has not a little pained the Swedish people, and kept awake their hostility toward Russia. But Sweden always has realized keenly that she herself is quite powerless against her big neighbor, and her governments have tried zealously to keep the peace.

Q.—Did the Finns retain the right to suffrage?

A.—They got it back during the revolutionary agitation in Russia in 1905. There was a sympathetic upheaval in Finland, and some measure of her old rights was restored. In 1906 they used their new privileges to elect a chamber of 200 members to make laws for them. Legislation providing for direct voting and woman suffrage was obtained. But Russian governors did what they could to limit the people, and friction with Russia remained constant.

Q.—What is Helsingfors?

A.—Helsingfors is the capital of Finland, and one of the old towns of Europe, having been founded by the great Swedish King Gustavus Vasa. It is a fortified town, its water approach being protected by the Sveaborg fortress, which is known as the Gibraltar of the Baltic.

Q.—What religion have the Finns?

A.—Originally, they were pagans of Mongolian affiliations. The Swedes brought them Christianity. At the present time they are mostly Lutherans.

Q.—When did Russia agree to evacuate Finland?

A.—On March 1, 1918, a treaty was signed in Petrograd. Russia agreed to turn over to Finland all claims to territory and property "in the territory bordering on the Arctic Ocean," thus giving Finland all the northern part of Russia adjoining Sweden and containing the ancient Lapland.

Q.—Is Finland a rich commercial territory?

A.—It may not be unusually rich, but it is very much un-exploited, and it contains most of the resources that a country needs for income—forest, agricultural lands, minerals and water-powers. It is about one-quarter again as big as our middle Atlantic States.

These resources have not been left unutilized. Finland has a good system of canals, a reasonably good but very limited system of railroads, a small but profitable industrial system, and some shipping. Behind Finland's life is a traditional love for schools, and there is a very sound educational system, which would have been still better had the Finns been permitted to manage their own affairs.

Finland now manufactures iron-ware, textiles, wooden-ware, paper, leather, and some chemicals.

Q.—Who sold the most goods to Finland?

A.—Germany did. She led all competitors so far that had it not been for Russian trade (which came next after Germany in volume), Germany would have supplied nearly all of Finland's needs, leaving only a few million dollars for the rest of the word to earn from that country.

Q.—How many people are in Finland?

A.—A little more than 3 million. The Finns are about 2½ million. There are about 338,000 Swedes, 7,000 Russians, 2,000 Germans, and less than 2,000 Lapps.

Q.—Is Bessarabia Arabic?

A.—No. It is a purely Russian province entirely within European Russia, inhabited by Slavs, of whom many are Ukrainian. Bessarabia, however, is not actually a part of what the Ukrainians have claimed historically as a part of their territory.

Q.—Where is Bessarabia?

A.—It is a province of about 17,000 square miles, with about 3 million people, that adjoins the Russian frontier of Roumania, and runs down to the Black Sea. It has a very important coast line on that sea, and Odessa is on its eastern end where the river Dniester empties into the big sea. The fact that the large river runs through Bessarabian territory makes it commercially important. The city of Kishinev is in it.

Q.—Why did we hear so much of Bessarabia?

A.—Partly because through it lay the way to Odessa, and partly because its northern end wedges itself into a corner formed by Roumania and Austrian Bukowina, and Galicia. The inhabitants of this debatable ground are so diverse in their politics and allegiances that the Austrians hoped to gain their support if they could break into Bessarabia.

Q.—Is the Ukraine near Bessarabia?

A.—The western end of the territory claimed by the Ukrainians adjoins Bessarabia. The Austrian operations toward Odessa were conducted through Bessarabia.

Q.—What would be the presumptive size of an independent Poland?

A.—Present Russian Poland is about 43,000 square miles (almost as large as Pennsylvania), and it has 12 million population, which is 4 million more than Pennsylvania has, despite its big and crowded manufacturing cities.

Q.—Can you state the first German terms at Brest-Litovsk?

A.—The Germans agreed to withdraw their troops from all occupied Russian territory, except "portions of Lithuania, Courland, and portions of Esthonia and Livonia." For these territories it was proposed that a special commission should fix the details of evacuation "in conformity with the Russian idea of the necessary ratification by a plebiscite on broad lines and without any military pressure whatever."

The reason given by the Germans for making special conditions regarding these territories, was that the population had already, through representative bodies, proclaimed separation from Russia.

The other terms were almost all merely such military and political details as are common to all peace treaties, to restore relations to the pre-war status. Indemnities of any kind were distinctly waived.

Q.—What was the first announcement of German intentions at Brest-Litovsk?

A.—It was the announcement made January 23, 1918, that the future frontier of Russia should be a line east of the Moon Islands to Brest-Litovsk. This meant a complete elimination of Courland and the Baltic provinces from Russia.

Q.—Did the German demand mean annexation?

A.—It was so construed, and with a great deal of reason; but it did not actually and specifically declare annexation to be an aim of the Germans. There still remained the more or less indefinite program of self-determination, but this again was complicated and obscured by the German refusal to evacuate those provinces before the process of such self-determination should begin.

Q.—Will the Jewish question be dealt with in the Peace Conference?

A.—A principle announced early in the war was "to assert and to enforce the independence of free States, relatively small and weak, against the encroachments and the violence of the strong," and, as the struggle proceeded, this has been assumed to include the liberation of subject peoples. The Jews, however, are in different case from other races. The Czechs, the Poles, the Serbs, the Ruthenians, the Roumanians, live in more or less definite areas, so that their creation into self-governing communities may be possible. The Jews, though, are scattered over the face of the earth; they do not anywhere inhabit territory where they outnumber the peoples of other races in any extended area. They dwell among other peoples, but yet are not of them. There may be, however, a real effort to procure just treatment for Jews everywhere, by laying down principles of just government for minorities everywhere.

Q.—Are there many Jews in Palestine?

A.—Apparently there are not very many left there now, but before the war there were some 80,000. Of these, only 5,000 settled in the country as a result of the Zionist movement. They were supported by contributions from abroad, chiefly from Russia. As funds were cut off as soon as the war broke out their condition was soon deplorable, and many escaped to Egypt.

Q.—How many Jews are there in the world?

A.—That is difficult to estimate, as not every country makes a religious census. There are probably about 13,000,000. More than 6,000,000 live in Russia, more than 2,000,000 in Austria-Hungary, and a few less in the United States. In Australasia there are 19,500; in Canada, 60,000; in South Africa, 40,000; 250,000 in the British Isles. In Germany there are nearly 700,000; in Turkey, outside Palestine, 380,000; in Roumania, 250,000; in Holland, 110,000; and in Morocco about the same. France has 100,000, and Belgium 12,000. In Italy there are 55,000, and in Argentina more than 30,000.

Q.—Who is spiritual head of the Armenian Church?

A.—In the early days the headship was hereditary, and occasionally the "Catholicus" and the King were one and the same. Now, however, the Chief Catholicus is chosen by the Synod of bishops and monks, though, nominally, the choice is made by the Armenian people themselves. The seat of the Catholicus is at Echmiadzin, the convent of Valarshapat, a town in Russian Armenia. There is a rival Catholicus, who has his see at Sic.

Q.—What is the difference between the Syrian and Armenian churches?

A.—In earlier centuries both churches were alike, but long ago the Syrian Christians became members of the Greek Orthodox Church.

Q.—What faith do the Armenians profess?

A.—They are Christians. The Armenian Church is the oldest of all national churches. Tradition credits the evangelization of Armenia to St. Bartholomew and St. Thaddeus. This legend probably was borrowed from Syria, for it is known that in the fourth century parts of the liturgy were read in Syriac throughout Armenia. During the early days of the Armenian Church it appears that many customs of the pre-

Christian priesthood were maintained, such as the sacrifice of animals under the rites of the old Levitical Law.

Q.—Does the Armenian Church more nearly resemble the Roman Catholic or the Greek Catholic?

A.—It is quite independent, but always has been more widely divided from the Greek than from the Roman. One of the sects is, indeed, practically Roman Catholic. Dominican missions visited Armenia in the fourteenth century and a regular order, the United Brethren, was formed. This order is known to-day as the Uniats. They have convents in Venice and Vienna, a college in Rome, and a large following in Turkey. They retain Armenian rites and liturgy, modified to meet Vatican standards of orthodoxy.

Village priests in the Armenian Church are allowed to marry, but since the twelfth century the higher clergy have been taking the monkish vow and wearing the cowl. The paschal lamb is still eaten. In baptism they dip three times, not as symbol of the triune name of Father, Son and Holy Ghost, but in symbol of the three days' entombment of Christ.

Until the twelfth century, and perhaps later, they maintained that Christ, until his thirtieth birthday, was a man mortal as other men. Then, because He was righteous beyond all others, He became divine when baptized in the Jordan; but He did not become the equal of God the Father. Holding this belief, they attach immense importance to baptism, and celebrate January 7, not December 25, as Christmas, holding that Christ was born by way of baptism. Belief in purgatory does not appear to be very general in the Armenian Church.

Q.—How many men did Serbia send to the front during the first three months?

A.—Serbia sent to the front during the first three months of the war about a quarter of a million men.

Q.—Which is the correct spelling—Servia or Serbia?

A.—Formerly it was spelled Servia, but now it is officially spelled Serbia. The Slavs spell it with a "b," but as their "b" is pronounced "v," the correct pronunciation would appear to be Servia. The Russians, for instance, write Sebastopol, and, in consequence, we pronounce it as we spell it—Sebastopol. They, however, pronounce it Sevastopol.

Q.—What is the Sinn Fein?

A.—It is an Irish political group originating in 1903. The name means "For Ourselves," or "For Ourselves Alone," in Gaelic, and the movement was originally a group of poets, philosophers and workers enthusiastic for the revival of the Gaelic language and literature, and Irish industries in Ireland. Later they became more revolutionary, advocating an Irish national bank, an Irish merchant marine, and Irish consular service—Irish autonomy, in fact—and opposing Irish taxation by England, emigration, and recruiting for the British Army. This Sinn Fein party joined with Sir Roger Casement in the Irish Rebellion of 1916, and a Sinn Feiner poet, Padraic Pearce, was named as first president of the short-lived Irish Republic. Pearce, Thomas MacDonagh, Joseph Plunkett and other Sinn Fein leaders were executed as traitors in the London Tower in May, 1916, as was also Sir Roger Casement.

Q.—How is the word pronounced?

A.—It is pronounced "shin fane."

Q.—What is the Home Rule question?

A.—It is a demand by Ireland for its own separate political government, with its own Parliament sitting in Ireland. The government of Ireland has never satisfied the Irish. In protest against it, as well as against the conditions of life from which the Irish have suffered, there have been repeated political, educational, and revolutionary movements. The modern history of the problem began about 1880, with Charles Stewart Parnell as spokesman for the Irish, demanding reform of land tenure and home rule.

William E. Gladstone was the first great British statesman to accept the idea of home rule, but no measure to accomplish it was passed until 1914, and this law was at once suspended for the duration of the war. A fundamental difficulty in adjusting a basis for home rule is the existence of two groups in Ireland, which have been mutually distrustful: (1) The Irish, who are mostly Catholic, and generally live in the country; and (2) the Protestant Ulstermen, who are mostly of British blood, live in northern Ireland, own property, and direct the city life and manufactures.

Q.—What parties lead in Ireland?

A.—(1) The Ulster Unionists in northern Ireland, who demand close connections with England, and fear the control of Ireland by the Catholic Irish; (2) the Irish Nationalists, who comprise the bulk of the population, and have long maintained a compact group of representatives in Parliament, desiring home rule, but more or less supporting the present war under the leadership of John Redmond till his death in 1918; (3) a middle group, drawing away from both of these, and desiring a friendly accommodation of differences; (4) the Sinn Fein, extreme nationalists, demanding immediate and genuine independence.

Q.—Did the Austrians make peace with Montenegro or not?

A.—They made a sort of arrangement, not with the king, but with two members of the Montenegrin Cabinet they found in Cettinje, General Becer and Major Lampar. By that time, however, many Montenegrins had fled into Albania, and those remaining were presumably not very hostile to the Austrians. The conditions imposed were that all arms had to be given up except those of the Montenegrins who were to assist in the policing of the country. The people were to lend all possible assistance to the Austro-Hungarian forces by furnishing them with food and water, means of transportation and housing, but they were not to be required to enter the territory of their conquerors. The 3,000 Austrian soldiers who had been captured by the Montenegrins were released.

Q.—Did America protest against violation of Grecian territory by the Allies?

A.—No. True to her settled policy when neutral not to interfere in European matters, she refrained from protest on this occasion, as when the Germans violated Luxembourg and Belgium.

Q.—Did Greece nearly take the Turkish side in the first Balkan war in 1912?

A.—A few days after the Balkan Allies had begun fighting among themselves, Prime Minister Venizelos was assailed savagely for having allied Greece with greedy Bulgaria. He defended himself in a speech which made clear that his preliminary diplomacy had been aimed at getting from Turkey a satisfactory concession, particularly on the Cretan question; and his speech indicated that if such a settlement could have been reached with Constantinople, Greece would have been kept by him out of the war, or might possibly even have opposed the other Balkan States.

Q.—Why did the Balkan Allies fight among themselves?

A.—The League of Balkan States had been inspired only by one common purpose—that of driving Turkey out of the Balkans. In everything else they were hostile. Serb hated Bulgar, and Bulgar hated Greek, and Greek did not much love either. When the extraordinary victory had come, and Turkey's whole Balkan possessions (especially Macedonia) lay in their hands, they immediately became furiously jealous of each other. Serbia refused to withdraw her troops from Central Macedonia, which the Serb-Bulgar pre-war treaty had marked out for Bulgaria. Bulgarians and Greeks raced headlong to seize desired portions of eastern Macedonia. The Greeks had already snatched Saloniki, and, while Bulgaria still was fighting the main Turkish Army at Adrianople, they took more cities and territory on the sea-coast of Macedonia near Saloniki.

Q.—Who began the second Balkan War?

A.—Bulgaria did. She began it, indeed, without a formal declaration, and struck suddenly, according to the charges made against her by Greece and Serbia. But there had been sporadic fighting between the various troops occupying contested points for some months. Bulgaria had, without doubt, done the big part of the fighting against Turkey. While Greece, Serbia and Montenegro had been defeating Turkish troops within the Balkans, and particularly within Macedonia, Bulgaria had held off the real Turkish Army, and had almost succeeded in striking at Constantinople. Flushed with her triumphs, and furious at the seizure of Macedonian territory, which it had been positively agreed should be hers, Bulgaria insisted on the pre-war pledges being made good instantly, and declared war as the alternative. To sum up: Greece and Serbia had treated Bulgaria very badly. Bulgaria was as greedy as they, however, and was so "cocky" over her great prowess in war that she acted with insufferable arrogance toward her former Allies.

Q.—Who has the best claims to Macedonia?

A.—The secret treaty between Serbia and Bulgaria certainly guaranteed Bulgarian possession of Central Macedonia. There is no doubt about that. It has never been denied. That Central Macedonia is inhabited largely by Bulgarian peoples also is too well known historically to be seriously questioned. The whole history of revolts against Turkey through centuries has had, as one of its chief springs of action, the burning passion of the Bulgars to liberate brother Bulgars in Macedonia from Turkish rule. But no human being, however gifted, can draw lines on the Balkan map and say, "here and here dwell such and such nationalities." The races are too intricately mixed—and they are not friends.

Q.—Would a just settlement divide the Balkans over again?

A.—If an international congress were to meet with the purest will to effect a "just settlement," and if it were to call in all the ethnological and other experts in the world, it would probably find it impossible to make a "just settlement" on the basis of dividing the contested Balkan territories among Greece, Serbia, and Bulgaria. Those three States might, conceivably, be satisfied; but, in the divided territories, there would remain villages and districts wholly, bitterly unreconciled. It might be possible (though excessively difficult) to so arrange it that the unreconciled people would be only minorities—but it is the oppressed minorities that are making a good part of the big trouble just now over the question of "small nationalities."

Q.—Was there an uprising in Greece against the Allies?

A.—There was an attack by Greek troops on Allied troops near Athens shortly before the Allies forced Constantine to abdicate. In January or early February, 1918, after Constantine's abdication, there was another military uprising at Lamia, of which little news was given to the world beyond the announcement by Prime Minister Venizelos that:

"The Government, believing that it must act without delay, has closed the session of the Parliament, so as to arrest, if necessary, those members of Parliament who would be immune on account of their membership were it in session. . . . Every one must understand that the events of Lamia have convinced the Government that it must take an entirely different and firmer attitude toward its adversaries."

Q.—Was there a South African revolt against England early in the war?

A.—Yes. De Wet, the famous Boer leader, in October, 1914, raised the standard of revolt with some five or six thousand Boers. By December 1, De Wet was a prisoner, and his army dispersed and captured by Boer forces, led by De Smuts. Louis Botha, a Boer leader, was Prime Minister at the time, and maintained the adherence of the Colony to the British Empire.

Q.—How has Great Britain treated annexed nationalities?

A.—In October, 1914, Field Marshal Earl Roberts made the following statement:

"In India, which is, to some extent, under the control of the British Parliament, such good work has been done for the development of the country, there is such security for life and property, such respect and toleration for the religious and social customs of the people, that impartial observers of all nations have united in a chorus of unstinted praise of British rule in India. Russian, French, and German writers who have been in India have, in turn, paid tribute to the sympathy, tolerance, prudence, and benevolence of our rule.

"Nor is there any sign that British administrators are tiring of their task, or likely to fail in bearing 'the white man's burden.' In each new dependency which comes under our care, young men, fresh from the public schools of Britain, come eagerly forward to carry on the high traditions of Imperial Britain. We have only to look at the work done recently in Nigeria, in the Sudan, in Rhodesia, and in British East Africa, to see that as a race the British are, if anything, more capable than ever of carrying on the work of Empire."

This may be said to represent the general English view.

Q.—What is the cause for revolutionary unrest in India?

A.—The native opponents of British rule are actuated by two leading motives. One is simply the common desire of nationalities and races in this era for their independence. The other is economic. They claim that the mass of the popula-

tion is kept poor to produce revenues for England, and for the English office-holders and residents in India.

Q.—What charges do the Indian revolutionaries make?

A.—They claim that the taxes on the poor natives, though the sums seem truly petty to the western mind, are excessive, considering the tiny native incomes. Manohar Lal, ex-Professor of Economics in the University of Calcutta, said, in 1916, that the average annual income per head of population in India had been $10 during the past thirty years.

Q.—Do British Indian officials get high salaries?

A.—The Viceroy of India (full title Viceroy and Governor-General) gets $83,000 a year. There also is a list of large allowances for various purposes. The members of the Viceroy's Council get $16,000 each. The Governors of the Provinces get the following salaries: Madras, $39,000; Bengal, $39,000; Agra and Oudh, $33,000; Punjab, $33,000; Burma, $33,000; Bihar and Orissa, $33,000; Central Provinces and Berar, $20,000; Assam, $19,800; Northwest Frontier, $16,000; Ajmer-Merwara, $16,000; Coorg, $16,000; Beluchistan, $16,000; Delhi, $12,000; Andaman and Nicobar Islands, $12,000. Total for heads of government (exclusive of Council members, of whom there are some 14), $420,800, for the heads of government alone.

Q.—Are the natives very poor?

A.—The Indian Government statistics show that weekly wages of agricultural laborers in Bengal are from $1 to as low as 50 cents a week. In the Punjab, according to native Indian writers, they range from 33 cents to 35 cents a week.

Q.—Do all the native opponents of British rule want independence?

A.—No. Their desires are wonderfully various. Some would be content with a reasonable apportionment of the better paid public offices among the natiyes, others want simply social equality, and still others would perhaps be content with such reforms as a purely Indian fiscal system, etc. The majority probably would be satisfied with nothing short of a very large measure of genuine autonomy. The very patriotic and ardent ones demand complete independence, and are willing to resort to arms.

Q.—Why has Mrs. Besant been interned?

A.—She was interned in June, 1917, for agitating in favor of Home Rule for India. Before she was imprisoned, she sold her newspaper, *New India*, to a Mr. Telang of Bombay.

Q.—Who represented India at the Indian conference?

A.—Austen Chamberlain, then Secretary of State for India; Sir James Meeston, Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh; His Highness the Maharajah of Bikaner, and Sir Satyendra Prasanna Sinha.

Q.—What are the causes of Indian famines?

A.—They are given as shortage of rainfall, with resulting droughts due to the lack of sufficiently extensive water-storage systems. This seems to be one of the very big reasons for periodical famines. Students and experts have often stated that in many famine years there had been a heavy rainfall, but it had occurred at the wrong time, and the water, of course, had gone to waste.

Over-population is given as another reason. The critics of the government, however, point to the fact that population statistics, figured to the square mile of national areas, show that European countries have a denser population than India. The revolutionaries say that the true cause is the poverty of the people, which prevents them from having any reserve for time of need.

Q.—Do famines in India occur often?

A.—William Digby, in "Prosperous British India," gives the following table, showing famines to 1900:

Eleventh century, two famines, both local; thirteenth century, one famine around Delhi, local; fourteenth century, three famines, all local; fifteenth century, two famines, both local; sixteenth century, three famines, all local; seventeenth century, three famines, area not defined; the eighteenth century (1769-1800), four famines, Bengal, Madras, Bombay and southern India.

Famines of the nineteenth century and loss of life thereby, divided into four periods of 25 years:

1800-1825, five famines, approximately 1,000,000 deaths; 1826-1850, two famines,

approximately 500,000 deaths; 1851-1875, six famines, recorded 5,000,000 deaths; 1876-1900, eighteen famines, estimated 26,000,000 deaths.

Q.—Are the famines due to actual lack of food in the country?

A.—J. Ramsay MacDonald says, in his "The Awakening of India":

"In studying famines, one must begin by grasping what it is and how it presents itself. Even in the worst times there is no scarcity of grain in the famine-stricken districts. At the very worst time in the Gujerat famine of 1900, it was shown by the official returns that there was 'sufficient grain to last for a couple of years in the hands of the grain dealers of the district. It is, therefore, not a scarcity of grain that causes famines.' In recent times, famine has been caused by a destruction of capital and the consequent cessation of the demand for labor. High prices coincide with low wages and unemployment, and the people starve in the midst of plenty."

Q.—Does the government not relieve famine?

A.—The work of the British in famine relief has been praised by practically every observer, even by zealous critics of the British in other respects. Lajpat Rai, one of the most pronounced opponents of English rule in India, who has been exiled because of his agitations, says that this work of the English deserves ungrudging praise. They have reduced it to a science and a small army of splendid men give up their lives to it, and very often cut short their lives by their zealous labors.

Q.—What is the relief work?

A.—Building of railroads, building of dams and bridges, construction of canals and irrigation works, opening of agricultural banks, etc. Relief camps are opened under alert officials and everything possible is done to bring food and means of earning it to the afflicted districts.

Q.—Did the British get India by conquest?

A.—Only in part, by sporadic, though pretty continual, military campaigns here and there. The real conquerors were the officials and forces of the British East India Company, one of the most extraordinary commercial associations that ever existed. It was technically a private stock company of merchants, yet it wielded all the powers of a strong national government, even to the extent of maintaining an enlisted army and making war.

Q.—What is the British East India Company?

A.—It is the offspring of the "Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading into the East Indies," which was founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1600, and made the first commercial settlement in India in 1621, after having about 10 years before defeated the Portuguese settlers who were there before them.

Q.—What was India when the British came in?

A.—It was a country divided into innumerable governments, whose rulers were practically independent masters, though some acknowledged the suzerainty of a central ruler, the Grand Mogul in Delhi. Some of the rulers were Hindu, some were Moslem, other governments were mixed.

Q.—Why did other European nations not get foothold in India?

A.—The Portuguese and French were there before the British. The Portuguese lost their hold before 1700. The French fought the English from about 1700 to 1761, when the English won a great final victory (the famous victory of Pondicherry). That was practically the end of France in India.

Q.—How did England acquire India after ousting the French?

A.—Slowly, steadily, by a wonderfully intricate process of native alliances, wars with native Princes, concessions, conquests, protectorates, and financial arrangements, whose complete history fills hundreds of volumes, and still has not been told in all its complex details.

Q.—Who was Lord Clive?

A.—He was a famous ruler of the conquered Bengal provinces under the British East India Company, and he ruled till 1769.

He was a very great man, and one of unusual talents and gifts; but the power which he had, and the insistent demands of the great company, caused conditions of which Macaulay says: "There was no limit to his acquisition but his own moderation. The treasure of Bengal was

thrown open to him. Clive walked between heaps of gold and silver, crowned with rubies and diamonds, and was at liberty to help himself. Enormous fortunes were thus rapidly accumulated at Calcutta, while thirty millions of human beings were reduced to the extremity of wretchedness."

Clive was bitterly assailed in the British Parliament when he returned, but he defended himself well, and while Parliament criticized certain financial transactions, it also declared that he had rendered meritorious service.

Q.—Was Clive impeached in England?

A.—No. The man who was impeached was Warren Hastings, appointed governor-general of India in 1774. He returned from India with vast wealth, and his impeachment trial before the House of Lords lasted for seven years (1788-1795), and has remained one of the most famous proceedings in the world. During that time England's greatest orators and statesmen made addresses that remain as the masterpieces of eloquence. All England was stirred by the tale of exploitation and intrigue that was laid bare. The leader in the indictments against Warren Hastings was Edmund Burke. Hastings was finally acquitted, but all his wealth had gone in the struggle, and he lived the rest of his life on an annuity of $20,000 a year granted him by the British East India Company.

Q.—Does the British East India Company still rule India?

A.—No. In 1784 Parliament passed the first of many laws that gradually curbed and minimized its powers. After the great Indian Mutiny the entire administration of India passed to the British crown (in 1858).

Q.—How is India ruled now?

A.—By a "Governor-General and Viceroy," appointed by the English King. He holds office for 5 years, and has supreme civil and military control with an executive council of a somewhat indeterminate number of members, some elected by a very exclusive suffrage, but most appointed by the Crown and always in such a way that the government shall have a majority of at least three.

Under this central government are the central departments; and besides this great, widespread central administration are the very large and elaborate governments of the 15 provinces, each with a Governor and a Council or a "Resident." Under these again is the immense local machinery of government—the districts within the provinces. There are more than 250 of these district governments. The districts again are parcelled out into lesser units, under British officials, magistrates, or deputy collectors.

Q.—Are many natives in the government?

A.—Practically all the high offices are held by Englishmen. Of the offices that have salaries down to $300 a year, most are held by natives. About 6,500 Englishmen thus manage, by a complex machinery, to rule the 300 millions of Indian people.

Q.—What were the India revolt plots?

A.—Almost as soon as the great war began, natives of India in this country, who long had been protesting against British rule in India, began propaganda and engaged in activities which the great British secret service system in this country fought hard to prevent. Many of these Indians were arrested, and finally the government indicted about thirty men, mostly East Indians, for "fomenting a revolution against a friendly power." They were put on trial in San Francisco, and in the last days of the case there were put in evidence papers that, in one way or another, brought in such names as Sir Rabindranath Tagore, winner of the Nobel prize for poetry; Counts Okuma and Terauchi, former Premiers of Japan, Wu Ting Fang, once Chinese Ambassador to the United States.

A great deal of money was spent in the agitation, and it had ramifications in China, South America, the West Indies, Central America, and throughout Asia.

RESTLESS RUSSIA

Q.—What was the Russian peace treaty?

A.—It was signed at Brest-Litovsk in the first few days of March, 1918. A certain territory "lying west of the line agreed on" was declared as no longer under Russian sovereignty. The line was not described in the treaty, but was understood to be the demarcation for new Poland, Lithuania, and the Ukraine.

The boundaries of the States of Esthonia and Livonia were specifically arranged. Russia undertook to make peace with the Ukraine People's Republic, and to recognize the peace treaty between the Ukraine and the Central Powers. Finland and the Aland Islands were to be evacuated by Russia at once, and Persian and Afghanistan integrity and independence were to be respected by both sides. Russia was to evacuate Asiatic Turkey occupied by her troops, and Erivan, Kars and Batoum (the oil and manganese regions) in the Caucasus.

Q.—Could Germany get rich out of Russia alone?

A.—If a coalition of all other nations obliged Germany to depend on Russia alone as an outlet for her commerce and industry, she would have a field which may be described as follows: European Russia (without counting Poland) is almost exactly two-thirds of the area of the United States, and it has 30 million more people than we have.

Yet this big territory, with its bigger population than ours, imports only one-quarter of what we import—and we are a great producing nation, manufacturing heavily for our own consumption, while Russia needs goods from outside if she is to assume a big place in modern industry.

Even at that low figure, however, the world's imports into Russia were about one-fifth the amount of Germany's entire annual export trade to the whole world before the war.

It would appear that, with a free hand to industrialize Russia swiftly, expand railroads, etc., Germany might reasonably expect, in a very small number of years, to draw nearly as much wealth from her neighbor as she does now from the whole world.

Q.—How much of Russia's total imports did Germany have?

A.—Before the war she had about one-half of the total import business of Russia. England came next, but very far behind. We came third, and a very bad third. Then came France and Austria-Hungary.

Q.—What did Russia import mostly?

A.—Machinery and woollens from Germany, machinery and coal from England, and raw cotton from us.

Q.—How much machinery did Russia import?

A.—About 85 million dollars' worth. Germany's whole exports of machinery are about 300 million dollars' worth normally. Russia could possibly absorb all that if she were industrialized on a scale at all commensurate with her possibilities.

Q.—Could the Central Powers and Russia exist by themselves?

A.—There is one great staple of modern commercial life which they could not produce within their own territories in sufficient amount, whatever else they might manage to do. They depend on the outer world for enough cotton. At present their only adequate supply comes from us and from Egypt, with some from India.

The trans-Caucasus, Russian Central Asia and Turkey put together produce only about one-sixteenth of the production of our southern States. While the Turkish production seems to be increasing steadily, it is obvious that the supply would fall ever so far short of requirements for many years to come.

Q.—How do Russia's railroads compare with others?

A.—Russia (counting European Russia alone) has 36,000 miles of railroad. To have as many, proportionately, as we have, she should have 176,000 miles. As it is, she has less railroads than Germany, though more than half a dozen Germanies could be stuck away in Russia.

Q.—Did Russia cede the Caucasus territories to Germany in the peace treaty?

A.—The word "cession" was not used. Russia simply agreed to evacuate the "districts of Erivan, Kars and Batoum," and not to "interfere in the reorganization of the constitutional or international condition of these districts, but leave it to the populations to carry out the reorganization in agreement with the neighboring States, particularly Turkey."

Q.—Did this clause cover the whole Caucasus?

A.—No. It covered only that portion of the Caucasus immediately adjoining Turkey on the eastern Black Sea coast. It is, indeed, a part that was Turkish until Russian conquest of the Caucasus made it Russian. Geographically, it is small, being only 20,000 square miles (about half the size of New York State), whereas that whole region of the trans-Caucasus (the formerly Turkish Caucasus south of the Caucasus Mountains) is 95,000 square miles. But in wealth it is of tremendous importance.

Q.—Is Batoum the richest oil-field in Russia?

A.—No. Batoum is the pipe-line terminus and the shipping port for some of the richest oil-fields in the world, but the trans-Caucasus province that is the big oil-producer is on the other side of the Caucasian peninsula—the province of Baku on the Caspian Sea, which remains to Russia.

The oil-fields in the region generally are, however, quite rich enough to be a tempting and valuable prize. But there is another still greater value to the Germans in control of Batoum and Kars. Batoum and a neighboring city named Poti are the seaport points for what probably are the richest manganese deposits in the world. This district produced almost one-third of all the manganese obtained in 1913. What this means to Germany's iron and steel industry is clear.

Q.—Has the Batoum region coal and minerals?

A.—It has copper and coal. It is said that one mine alone, very inadequately worked now, has been examined by experts who estimate that it has deposits of probably 1½ million tons of ore that runs about twice as rich as American ore does. There also is asphalt and rock salt in the region.

Q.—Is Russia overwhelmingly important to the world's oil supply?

A.—In 1900 Russia produced thirty-one per cent of the oil of the world, but owing to the slackening of the Baku output, this percentage, of course, has decreased heavily. The true wealth of the Russian oil-supplies has hardly been touched, it is said.

Q.—Are the Russian peasants very poor?

A.—There are large districts where, it is said, the average annual expenditure of a peasant on all his needs is not more than 20 roubles ($10) a year! Even this tiny sum cannot all be spent on himself. He must buy implements out of it, make repairs, etc.,—if he can. In one district of 28,000 of these small peasant farms, 10,000 do not own a single horse between them, and the 10,000 farms together do not own fifty modern agricultural machines.

Q.—Was there a Russian republic once?

A.—In the city of Novgorod, south from Petrograd, is a monument erected in 1862 to commemorate the 1,000th anniversary of the founding of that city. Incidentally, it commemorates a Russian republic which held its own for many centuries.

The people of Novgorod (who probably descended from Danish sea-rovers under Rurik) obtained a charter from their Prince, Yaroslav, and after about a century of this semi-free existence, they elected their own Princes through a popular assembly or council called the vyache. The vyache soon became the real ruler, and thrust the Princes out whenever they failed to please. In 1120 they decided to do without Princes altogether, and after that were governed by their vyache. By the fourteenth century the community (which consisted mostly of powerful merchants) had become so great that it included other large towns, such as Pskov. They fought Swedes and Germans successfully, and, with the help of the Lithuanians, beat back the invasion of the Princes of Moscow several times. In about 1475, however, they were overcome and Ivan III of Moscow took away their charter. In 1570 Ivan IV (Ivan the Terrible) subjugated them entirely, massacring 15,000 or, as some accounts have it, 60,000.

Q.—What did the Russian Revolutionists want?

A.—After the abdication of the Czar, the Provisional Revolutionary Government announced the following principles: (1) Amnesty for all political and religious offenses; (2) freedom of speech, press, association, labor, right to strike, and extension of these liberties to troops so far as conditions permit; (3) abolition of all social, religious and national restrictions; (4) summoning of a constituent assembly; (5) substitution for the police of a national militia with elective heads; (6) communal election with universal suffrage; (7) troops that participated in revolution not to be disarmed, but not to leave Petrograd; (8) severe military discipline in active service, but all restrictions on soldiers in enjoyment of social rights granted to other citizens to be abolished.

Q.—Who formed the first Russian Provisional Government?

A.—Prime Minister and Minister of the Interior, Prince George Lvoff; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Paul Miliukoff; Mininsters of War and Marine, Alexander Guchkoff; Minister of Finance, Michael Tereshchenko; Minister of Justice, Alexander Kerensky; Procurator of the Holy Synod, Vladimir Lvoff.

Q.—Was the Provisional Government recognized by the Allies?

A.—It was recognized quite promptly by all the Allies, by most of the neutral nations, and by the United States, which was not then at war with Germany, but was fast moving toward it.

Q.—Who are the Bolsheviki?

A.—They are Russian Socialist Democrats. They are not a new party, but, on the contrary, one of the older political factions of Russia. The men who now call themselves Bolsheviki were originally the very radical element of the Russian Socialist Democratic party, representing, in a broad way, the political principle that the proletariat must rule, and that the fight of the proletariat is not merely against an autocratic government, but that it is also against the middle class—the class that, wishing to cling to its own possessions, even though these might be meager, must necessarily always oppose the proletariat's demand for communal ownership.

Q.—Why are they called Bolsheviki?

A.—In 1905 there was a great split in the party, and the Radicals, then under the leadership of Nikolai Lenine, found themselves in the majority. They demanded an immediate effort to secure a maximum of the party's program, and were, therefore, christened "Bolsheviki"—the men who want more—or Maximalists. Their more moderate opponents became known as "Mensheviki"—those who demand less—or Minimalists. The name seems to have had nothing to do with the fact that these "root-and-branch" partisans controlled a majority of the Socialist Democratic party. They might be in a minority there, and among the Russian people as a whole, yet still be Bolsheviki.

The present Bolsheviki party is composed not only of the original faction, but also of the radical faction of the Peasants' Social Revolutionary party, which joined the Bolsheviki in 1917.

Q.—Were the Bolsheviki backed by the people generally?

A.—They showed quite surprising popular strength for a considerable time. At the third All-Russian Conference of Councils of Workmen's and Soldiers' and Peasants' Delegates, which was held in Petrograd during the end of January, 1918, the opposition to Bolsheviki rule was so weak, both in numbers and in spirit, that it was almost negligible. This was unexpected, since this conference was attended by men who, under the Soviet or Local Council systems of Russia, might be supposed to represent the people very directly, and it had been believed that they would have marked differences of opinion with the radical Petrograd Socialists.

Q.—Did the Soviets support the Bolsheviki peace with Germany?

A.—The All-Russian Congress of Soviets, assembled in Moscow to act on the peace treaty submitted by Lenine, consisted of 1,164 delegates, soldiers, sailors and peasants being in the majority. The assembly voted overwhelmingly to accept the treaty, though voicing its unrelenting enmity toward the German military and capitalistic government.

Q.—What is Lenine's political creed?

A.—Nikolai Lenine's creed apparently remains the one he has preached all his

life—the Proletarian Revolution. This is unlike the socialism of the men under Kerensky, who fought for a general socialism. The Lenine school holds that the class struggle must be fought out first, and that the undermost class is the more numerous, and must, therefore, be placed on top. In following out this idea to practical issues, he holds that the land question is the foundation of all poverty in Russia and that, therefore, it must be solved first. The solution, as he sees it, is to proceed to immediate and complete appropriation of all privately owned land.

Q.—How much privately owned land is there in Russia?

A.—Lenine said recently that of 297,000,000 acres in the hands of private proprietors, 21,000,000 acres alone were owned by a so-called "Department of Appanages," really a little group of Romanoff Grand Dukes. One such family, he said, owns more land than is possessed by half a million average peasant families. He enumerates 924 rich families in Russia which hold 27,000 acres each.

Q.—Is not much land owned by peasants?

A.—One of the declarations of the Bolsheviki political principles is that there are about several million of men of the peasant class, known as Zazhtochnii (rich peasants), who gamble in land, hold it for debt, etc., and starve the poor peasants. These oppressive bourgeois peasants were under the Bolsheviki ban like the great land-owners.

Q.—Is Russia a true Slav State?

A.—A majority of the population is Slav, but Russia is by no means a completely Slav State. The race mixture is as remarkable as that in Austria-Hungary. Of the 132,000,000 population of European Russia in 1915, 92,000,000 were Slavs, 12,000,000 were Asiatic Tartars, 5,500,000 were Finns (akin to the Magyars of Hungary), 5,000,000 were Jews, 3,000,000 were of Latin and Germanic stock, and 3,000,000 Lithuanians.

Q.—What races inhabit Russia?

A.—Slavs, Lithuanians, Letts, Semites (Jews), Poles, Greeks, Swedes, Roumanians, Armenians, Persians, Kurds, Gypsies, Esthonians, Finns, Lapps, Samoyedes, Tartars, Bashkirs, Turks, Kirghiz, Uzbegs, Yakuts, Kalmucks, Georgians, Circassians, and Caucasians (natives of the Caucasus).

Q.—What was Russia originally?

A.—Originally, the huge territory in eastern Europe now covered by Russia, was divided among separate tribes and nationalities, which had nothing in common. Thus, at the death of Charlemagne (814 A.D.), when the empires of western Europe had attained splendor and a decidedly high civilization, the Russian territory was practically without any connection or communication with that western civilization. The Baltic coast was held by a Lettish race, who formed a state there called Esthonia. The west and center of the area was known as Slavonia, and the greater part of the Black Sea coast, and the land reaching well toward the north of Russia on the Asian boundary, was held by the very powerful Kingdom of the Khazars, who were Tartars.

Q.—What is the Russian Holy Synod?

A.—It is the supreme organ of government of the orthodox church in Russia. It was established in 1721, and, during the Czardom, was presided over by a lay procurator representing the Czar. The other members of the Holy Synod were the three "Metropolitans" of Moscow, St. Petersburg and Kiev, the Archbishop of Georgia, and a number of bishops sitting in rotation.

Q.—Are all Russians members of the Greek Catholic Church?

A.—In 1905 an estimate was made that of 140,000,000 Christians of various sects, about 87,000,000 were members of the orthodox or Russian State Church.

Q.—What are the other chief religions in Russia?

A.—Of the population (estimated at from 160 to 180 millions) living in all the Russian Empire, an area about 2¾ times as big as the United States, about fifteen million are Mohammedans, Buddhists, or other non-Christians, about five million are of Jewish faith, and one hundred and forty million are of the various sects of the Christian religion.

Q.—What does "bourgeois" mean?

A.—The word means literally "burgher," or the burgher class—that is, the prosperous middle class of Europe. It became a term of opprobrium during the French Revolution, when the middle classes, which themselves had suffered under the tyrannical rule of the monarch-

ical aristocracy, became frightened by the excesses of the lower classes, and in their desire for orderly government leaned toward restoration of the monarchy—or were suspected of doing so.

Q.—What do the Russians mean by "bourgeois"?

A.—In Russia the term is now applied to everybody whose interests and leanings differ from those of the masses. All such persons are accused of capitalistic sympathies, and are under suspicion by the radical groups. The effect is to class among the bourgeois many so-called intellectuals and more moderate liberals, to whom, as a matter of fact, the first success of the revolution largely was due. It was because of his alignment with this class that Professor Milyukoff lost standing with the radical revolutionaries.

Q.—Would not the bourgeois be likely to cling to republicanism?

A.—The Bolsheviki fear and believe that the "bourgeois" element of the entire world (and perhaps Russia in particular, because Russian political ambition is extraordinarily small among the middle class) would be guided mainly by the class-desire for an "orderly" government beyond everything else. Business, trade, money-earning, money-making—these are wholly natural (and not in themselves blameable) purposes of the great middle classes of the world. Radical reformers, who are willing to suffer privations, and even to die for their beliefs, feel sure that the bourgeois would not be willing to suffer for a great ideal reform, but would weaken and turn to any powerful party that might assure them of quiet and peace.

Q.—Are there separate governments in Russia?

A.—Yes, and there always have been, though most of them were simply little autocracies, ruled by governors who represented Petrograd. There are 78 of these local government divisions, and 50 of them are in Russia proper. The local affairs (parish affairs) are in the hands of peasants' committees. Under the revolutionary government there were about 17,000 of these parishes or cantons.

Q.—What is meant by zemstvos?

A.—They are an old form of assemblies elected for each district. A Russian district corresponds in a general way to a county. Zemstvos were elected by a restricted vote, and were purely deliberative local bodies with closely circumscribed rights and duties. Their importance and efficiency differed greatly in various parts of the country, but, as a whole, they did good work. Undoubtedly they spread the popular desire for self-government, and afforded practical experience of it.

Q.—Did the zemstvos meet during the war?

A.—Prince George Lvoff, first premier of the provisional government, later denounced and dismissed, was a strong believer and supporter of the zemstvos. It was due primarily to his efforts that a voluntary council of all zemstvos formed under his leadership during the darkest period of Russia's defeats by the armies of the Central Powers. This voluntary body was chiefly responsible for the improved supply of food, munitions, and medical aid to the forces at the front when the incompetency and corruption of the established government were discovered.

The fiftieth anniversary of the zemstvos was in the year before the great war began (1913).

Q.—Did the zemstvos rule cities also?

A.—No. They are local elective assemblies for the population dwelling outside the towns. Established in 1864, they were of two sorts—*cantonal*, in which even peasants had a limited representation, and *provincial*, composed of delegates elected from the cantonal zemstvos; they were to meet annually, and exercise large powers in relation to education, public health, roads, etc. In 1890 their powers were greatly restricted, but in 1905 they regained much of the initiative which they had lost. The rôle of the congress of zemstvos, composed of leading members of the local bodies, who in November, 1904, and June, 1905, assembled at Petrograd, has often been compared to that of the Assembly of Notables in the French Revolution.

Q.—What is the Duma?

A.—A Russian Parliament or Congress created under the old régime. It was an elective body representing the people at large, and was created August 6, 1905, as a result of a popular uprising. In October, 1905, it received guarantees of freedom of speech, conscience, assembly, and association, and of inviolability of the per-

son. These guarantees, however, were not kept by the Government.

At the same time the body then known as the Council of the Empire was made a legislative council and became the upper house of Russia's Parliament.

Q.—What was the term of a Duma?

A.—Constitutionally, the members of the Duma were elected for a term of five years. The first and second Dumas, however, lasted only a few weeks each. The third Duma completed its term. The fourth Duma, elected in November, 1912, was in session at the outbreak of the revolution, and, though not actually a prime factor in its inception, was sympathetic toward it, and was a means through which anarchy was avoided.

Q.—How were Duma members elected?

A.—By a process which is, perhaps, the most complicated in the world. The original manifesto that brought the Duma into being was altered by Imperial ukase in 1907, it having been found that under the original arrangement the Cadet party—the Constitutional Democrats, which included the Socialists and exiles returned to Russia when the constitution was promised in 1905—was in overwhelming strength. The Cadets were so obnoxious to the government that the first Duma was dissolved at once. When the Cadets proved again to be in great majority in the second, it was resolved to alter the electoral law, so that representation should be more conservative. The members from Siberia, the Caucasus and Poland were reduced from 89 to 39, the Central Asian Steppes were disfranchised altogether (they had before this sent 23 members), and the number of representatives in all was reduced from 524 to 442. The members were to be elected by a complicated system of electoral colleges which could be, and were, so manipulated as to leave the power in the hands of the bureaucracy and landed proprietors.

Q.—Had the Duma much power?

A.—According to the constitution it had very little. It was allowed to have nothing to do with the army or navy. Legislation was in the hands of Ministers, who were responsible not to the Duma, but to the Czar. Members might originate legislation, but not until it had the approval of the Minister of the Department concerned. If, by a two-thirds majority, the Duma arraigned the action of a Minister, the President of the Imperial Council laid the case before the Czar, who decided the matter. The Duma had little real power over finance, more than half the annual expenditure of the country in times of peace being entirely outside the control of Parliament. Ministers could and did impose taxation without consulting the Duma at all, for when it was not sitting the Czar had the power to issue ordinances having the force of law. He had also the power of dissolving the Duma or proroguing it whenever he liked. Despite this, the Duma, during its last three or four years, established its position so well that it was beginning to take a larger share in public affairs, and began to brook no curbing. The Council of Soldiers' and Workers' representatives assumed superior power soon after the revolution.

Q.—Were workmen represented in the Duma?

A.—They were specially treated. Every industrial concern employing fifty workers or more, elected one or more delegates to the electoral college of the particular government in which it was situated. If it were not for the provision that at least one Duma member must be chosen in each government from each of the five classes represented in the college, it is obvious that the progressive elements would not have had any representation at all in the Russian Parliament.

This rule, however, made it imperative that a fixed minimum of peasant members must be sent to the Duma, a fixed minimum of landed proprietors, and so on. But the Radical elements in the Duma practically all came from the cities of Petrograd, Moscow, Kiev, Odessa, Riga, Warsaw and Lodz. These seven cities elected their representatives for the Duma direct, although even in their case special precautions were taken to give the advantage to the wealthy electors.

Q.—What was the Council of the Empire?

A.—There was of old an Upper House called the Council of the Empire, consisting of 196 members, half being nominated by the Emperor and half being elected. The Czar nominated his own Ministers, who were *ex officio* members of the Council. Of the 98 elected members the Monks selected three, the clergy three, the Corporations of Nobles eighteen, the Academies of Science and the Universities six, the Chambers of Commerce six, the In-

dustrial Councils six, the Zemstvos thirty-four, Governments having no Zemstvos sixteen, and Poland six. Another body, called the Senate, had really nothing to do with legislative matters. It was actually a sort of Supreme Court, but performed a great variety of functions. All its members were nominees of the Czar.

Q.—What does "Soviet" mean?

A.—It is the Russian word for council. It appears frequently in the newspaper dispatches as a brief and convenient synonym for the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies.

Q.—What are the various Russian "Councils"?

A.—They spring from certain Workmen's, People's, Peasants' and Soldiers' Councils that were formed in several places in Russia during the disorders in 1905.

They were remembered when the 1917 revolution came. The Petrograd Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies was organized before the Provisional Government was formed. The Petrograd Council was soon supplemented by delegates from other councils, and this enlarged council launched the important campaign for the publication of secret treaties, and for a general peace at the earliest possible moment.

Then an All-Russian Congress of Councils of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies held a joint session to discuss vast and radical economic reforms.

The Congress adjourned in July, leaving a permanent executive committee, to which the Socialist ministers of the coalition cabinet were held responsible. The executive committee supported the Kerensky Government until the Kornilov affair, when, under the influence of the Bolsheviki, it began to take a more radical line again.

The newly elected municipal governments were tending to replace the Councils of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies when the Bolsheviki uprising of November, 1917, occurred.

Q.—What is meant by the "Camarilla"?

A.—"Camarilla" is a Spanish equivalent for the English "cabal." The name was applied to the group of men and women who surrounded the Czar. Among them were to be found politicians, generals, and priests. Some of them were, very probably, pro-German, and, previous to the revolution, were working for a separate peace. Others, like Rasputin, were primarily interested in gaining as much power and wealth as possible. The Czar and Czarina were influenced excessively by this group, and nothing of which they disapproved had much chance of reaching the ear or eye of Russia's autocrat.

Q.—Who was Rasputin?

A.—A Russian monk, known as the "holy devil" of the Russian Court, who is thought to have wielded extraordinary and fateful power over the Czarina, and, through her, over the Czar, and have materially hastened the downfall of the Romanoff dynasty by inciting them to more and more merciless autocratic measures and intolerant policies against liberalism.

Q.—Why did the Bolsheviki refuse to let Ambassadors draw money from banks?

A.—In order to compel the British Government to give the Bolsheviki Government complete control of Russian funds in the Bank of England. In reality, the object was far greater than merely that of gaining access to funds. To admit their right to the Russian funds meant to acknowledge the Bolsheviki Government.

Q.—When was the Russian Constituent Assembly dissolved?

A.—The Russian Constituent Assembly held its first meeting on January 18, 1918, and after a single turbulent session was dissolved by armed Bolshevist sailors in pursuance of a degree issued by Premier Lenine. The assembly was succeeded by the All-Russian Congress of Soviets (councils of workmen and soldiers), which held its first meeting on January 22nd.

Q.—What was the personnel of the American mission to Russia?

A.—Elihu Root, Charles R. Crane, General Hugh M. Scott, Rear-Admiral Glennon, John R. Mott, Charles Edward Russell, and Cyrus McCormick.

Q.—What did Russia owe the United States when she withdrew from the war?

A.—At that time Russia owed us $187,779,000—that is, we had advanced this money for Russian account to our

own manufacturers and producers for goods. Many of these had been sent to Russia and were, presumably, piled up in Vladivostock when the Russians signed the peace with the Germans. The United States held Russian bonds as security for the loan, which was part of a total credit that had been established for $325,000,000.

Q.—How many prisoners of war were in Russia in 1918?

A.—Apparently about 1½ million Germans and Austro-Hungarians, with a sprinkling of Turks and Bulgars. Most of the prisoners were Austro-Hungarians, for the Russian captures of German soldiers were comparatively small, as figures go in this huge war. Not all of these prisoners were soldiers, either. Russia interned a very large number of Germans and Austrians who were in her possession when war began.

Q.—Did she send the prisoners to Siberia?

A.—She sent most of them to Siberia. Little was said about it early in the war, because the name "Siberia" was recognized by the Allies as possibly conveying a sense of tragic exile and suffering. We must remember, however, that Siberia is not at all the forbidding country that past generations believed it to be. It is undeniable that the long journey through a country with inadequate rail facilities, and with very inadequate places of rest, was very hard; but when the prisoners arrived at their destinations, they were, probably, not badly off. The innate kindliness of the Russian population would do much to alleviate their lot as far as insufficient resources permitted.

Q.—When was the Russian Red Army organized?

A.—"The New Workmen's and Peasants' Red Army" was named in an official communication, January 31, 1918, of the Bolsheviki Government of Russia, as being ready to "serve to support the coming social revolution in Europe."

Q.—When was the name of St. Petersburg changed to Petrograd?

A.—It was done by Imperial ukase on September 1, 1914. The city then had a population of well over 2,000,000, but after the Grand Duke evacuated Poland this was temporarily increased by almost another million.

Q.—How many Prime Ministers has Russia had since the war?

A.—Seven: Kokovtsoff, Goremykin, Sturmer, Trepoff, Prince Golitzin, Prince Lvoff and Kerensky. Then came the rule of Lenine and the Bolsheviki party.

Q.—How many men did Russia send to the front in the first three months?

A.—Russia put into the field during the first weeks of the war about a million and a quarter, which grew to perhaps two million and a half by the winter of 1914-1915.

Q.—Did Tolstoy foretell events of the war?

A.—In 1910 he wrote an essay addressed to the Czar, the Kaiser, and King George, in which he foretold that commercialism would set the world afire with the flames of war and bigotry. He said: "The great conflagration will start about 1912, set by the torch of war, in the countries of southeastern Europe. It will develop into a destructive calamity in 1913. In that year I see all Europe in flames and bleeding. I hear the lamentations of huge battlefields. But about the year 1915 a strange figure from the north—a new Napoleon—enters the stage of the bloody drama. He is a man of little militaristic training, a writer or a journalist, but in his grip most of Europe will remain till 1925. The end of the great calamity will mark a new political era for the old world. There will be left no empires and kingdoms, but the world will form a federation of the United States of Nations. There will remain only four great giants—the Anglo-Saxons, the Latins, the Slavs, and the Mongolians."

Q.—Did Tolstoy not also prophesy a new Messiah?

A.—Yes. In that same essay he said: "After the year 1925 I see a change in religious sentiments. Bigotry has brought about the fall of the church. The ethical idea has almost vanished. Humanity is without the moral feeling. But then a great reformer arises. He will clear the world of the relics of monotheism, and lay the cornerstone of the temple of pantheism. God, soul, spirit, and immortality will be molten in a new furnace, and I see the peaceful beginning of an ethical era. The man determined to this mission is a Mongolian-Slav. He is already walk-

ing the earth—a man of active affairs. He himself does not now realize the mission assigned to him by a superior power."

Q.—What is Brest-Litovsk?

A.—Brest-Litovsk is an eastern frontier town of Russian Poland, about one hundred miles east of Warsaw. It was the scene of the peace parleys between the Germans and the Russian Bolsheviki leaders, Trotzky and Lenine.

Q.—When was the Czar overthrown?

A.—The first news of the revolution of the Russian people and the abdication of Czar Nicholas came to the world on March 16, 1917. There were intimations two days before this that some political crisis was at hand, but the reports were so vague that they gave little clue to what was going on. On March 18 the Provisional Government issued its Appeal to the People, and this date has been accepted as the beginning of the new régime.

Q.—How are the Russians off for food and fuel?

A.—One of the most reliable writers, who has recently been in Russia, reports as follows:

"In Petrograd, though I was stopping at one of the most highly esteemed Russian hotels, often in the morning the waiter would come up to my room with the cheerful tidings:

"'No sugar to-day; no butter; no eggs; no milk.' And he would set before me a pot of clear bitter coffee, and a small chunk of soggy black bread. But when I made trips to the villages, in peasant huts I would be regaled by my hospitable host with white bread, rich, fresh milk, and also eggs and butter. I would fatten on the land for a time, and then would return to my meager life in that starved, elaborate hotel.

"Not only was food scarce in the towns, but the people were dreading the winter with the low supply of fuel on hand, especially in Moscow. For, as a rule, the Russians use stove wood to heat their homes and, though the peasants had not seized the forests, they felt that these forests would soon be their own; therefore, last summer they refused to cut firewood for the towns."

Q.—What does Russia owe for war loans alone?

A.—It owes for loans made during the Czardom alone at least 25 billions.

Q.—What did Russia do in the war?

A.—Early in the war she invaded eastern Prussia twice, but was driven back. Then she drove through eastern Galicia, and started invasion of Hungary through the Carpathians.

In 1915 the Germans struck back hard, and pushed Russian armies out of Poland and to the Brest-Litovsk line. The Russians lost Lemberg and Warsaw.

In 1916 they drove forward again, and made a grand campaign into Galicia and Volhynia, drove the Turks almost wholly out of Armenia, threatened to smash the whole Austrian front, but suddenly were caught by a German counter-offensive and lost most of their gains.

In 1917 the progressive weakening of the Russian front was becoming well known, despite the censorship, and suddenly in March, the crisis came with the revolution which dethroned the Czar.

In 1918 various parts of Russia began to declare their independence. On February 10, 1918, Russia was declared out of the war. There was a brief reaction which at first seemed important, but on March 3, 1918, Russia made her initial peace with Germany.

JAPAN AND MANCHURIA

Q.—How far would Japan have to move troops to attack the Germans?

A.—She would have to move them from Harbin or Vladivostock over the Siberian Railroad, which is presumably in no very good condition. The length of the railroad from Vladivostock to Moscow is 5,392 miles. In addition, there are the sea transports from Japan to the Asiatic mainland, and the railroad transport to Japanese seaports from the concentration centers. Altogether, Japan's troops would have to be moved double the distance across the American continent between New York and San Francisco.

Q.—Is Manchuria Chinese territory?

A.—It is very old Chinese territory. It was the seat of the Manchu dynasty which ruled China for many centuries. But when Russia expanded through Siberia to the Pacific Ocean, and Japan stretched herself and looked toward the nearby Asiatic continent, Manchuria's geographical position turned out to be unlucky—for China. Inland the territory lay in such a way that it blocked Russia's straight road to her Siberian port of Vladivostock. On the sea, its coast was opposite Japan.

Q.—Is Manchuria very far north?

A.—The easiest way to visualize the geography of Manchuria is to understand that the whole China coast, including Manchuria, occupies about the same latitudes as does the American coast from Cuba to Newfoundland. China proper extends about as far north as New York is in our hemisphere. Manchuria occupies the latitudes north from New York to Newfoundland. The geographical relation of Japan to this territory may be understood if you will imagine the Japanese island empire lying along the American coast with its southern end only a hundred miles from Savannah, Georgia, and its northern end about equally near to Nova Scotia, while all the Atlantic Ocean between these two points is an inclosed sea—the Sea of Japan.

Q.—Was the Russo-Japanese war about Manchuria?

A.—Yes. From the time of her war with China, Japan had been watching the Asiatic mainland more jealously with every year. Russia, meantime, was thrusting herself against the northern border of China (Manchuria) with ever-increasing pressure. In 1900 came an opportunity. It was the famous "Boxer" uprising. Russia immediately proclaimed that law and order and the security of her Siberian frontiers obliged her to restore tranquillity in China, and she moved into Manchuria.

Then followed four years of intricate Asiatic politics which involved not merely Manchuria but Korea. Russia maintained her hold despite Japan's threats and counter-moves, and the island empire suddenly broke off diplomatic relations and began war on Russia February 8, 1904. Japan was victorious on land and sea.

Q.—How far is Japan from the Asiatic mainland?

A.—The northern and southern extremities of the Japanese group of islands swing in close to Asia. The rest of the group curves away in a huge crescent from the Asiatic mainland. Nippon, the biggest island, is 453 miles from Vladivostock, across the Sea of Japan.

Q.—Was Chinese Manchuria cut up after the Russo-Japanese war?

A.—It was not "cut up." It was artistically and scientifically penetrated. By the Portsmouth peace treaty, Russia ceded to Japan not only the Chinese lease of Port Arthur, but also the railroad extending northward into Manchuria for about five hundred miles. This is the railroad that runs northward to Harbin, the town where Chinese, Japanese and Russian interests come to a meeting point.

Harbin is on the border between northern Manchuria and China proper, and it is, furthermore, on the Siberian railroad. Thus it is a "strategic junction point." In addition, it is not far from the Siberian border.

Q.—Did Russia take Siberia from China?

A.—No. Russia did not, as a matter of fact, take Siberia from anybody. While English and Spanish sea-adventurers were fighting for the golden lands of the Spanish Main in our hemisphere in Queen Elizabeth's time, a Cossack adventurer, named Yermak, led a little band of men across the Urals from Russia, and added Siberia to the Czar's empire, practically by discovery. There was fighting with the Tartar tribes, but it was very desultory, and in less than a century the Russian sway touched the Pacific Ocean. In 1700 the autocracy began to "utilize" the wonderful new territory as a convenient place for imprisonment.

Q.—Is Port Arthur Russian, Chinese or Japanese?

A.—It is Chinese—technically. It is in Chinese territory. China fortified the city in 1891. Japan took it in the China-Japanese War, 1894. She was not permitted by the Powers to keep it. In 1898 Russia moved in and "acquired" it from China on a lease. In 1905, during the Russo-Japanese War, Japan took it from Russia after a long siege.

Q.—How could Japan take Port Arthur from Russia if China owns it?

A.—By the treaty of peace between Russia and Japan (signed in Portsmouth, New Hampshire, in 1905) the Russian Government ceded the lease of Port Arthur and adjacent territories and waters to Japan. In 1915 China extended the lease, making it run 99 years from that date. Thus Japan is secure in her possession of this foothold on the Asiatic continent until 2014.

Q.—Where is Korea?

A.—Korea is, geographically, a part of Manchuria, being a southern extension that thrusts an enormous peninsula between the Sea of Japan and the Yellow or China Sea, and almost touches the southernmost islands of Japan with its extremity. The island group that has the famous Japanese port of Nagasaki on it is just across the Korean Straits from the Korean extremity.

Q.—Is Port Arthur near Korea?

A.—On the China or Yellow Sea side of the Korean Peninsula (toward the China mainland) is a huge gulf. Protruding into this gulf, between Korea and the Chinese province Chili (which has Pekin in it) is a big peninsula known as the Peninsula of Liaotung. The fortified city of Port Arthur is at its extremity. From the west coast of Korea to Port Arthur is 191 miles.

Q.—Is Vladivostock near Port Arthur?

A.—No. It is very much farther north, and the two places are separated by the Korean Peninsula and a whole lot of coast-line on both sides of the Peninsula. Vladivostock, if situated on our coasts, would occupy about the geographical position of Boston. Port Arthur would be enough farther south to be about where Philadelphia is.

To steam from Port Arthur to Vladivostock a ship must go down the Yellow Sea southward, then turn northeast through the Korean Straits between Japan and Korea, and then steer north through the Sea of Japan to Vladivostock.

Q.—How long has Russia had Vladivostock?

A.—More than half a century. Vladivostock was made into a great seaport and rail terminus as a logical part of Russia's expansion through Siberia. It is in real Siberian territory, not in Manchuria, though the Russian Siberian coast there stretches itself along the sea in such a way that Manchurian territory forms "hinter-land."

Q.—Did Japan always own Korea?

A.—Korea was an independent monarchy, but Japan gradually extended her influence there and in 1910, by treaty, Korea was annexed to the island empire. The Korean Government appealed to the Powers of Europe for aid, but nothing was done. There followed a good deal of rebellion, or rather of revolutionary agitation by young Koreans, many of whom had been educated in Europe and America. These movements were suppressed in the usual way, and for a long time nothing has been heard of Korea.

Q.—How many islands compose the Japanese group?

A.—There are 431 islands. Altogether their area in square miles is a little bigger than Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin combined. They have three times the population, however, having 56 million people, a little more

than half the total population of the United States and within 9 million of the whole population of Germany.

Q.—How far are the Philippines from Japan?

A.—The northernmost point of the Philippine group (island of Luzon) is about 1,200 miles south from the Japanese port of Nagasaki on the extreme southern end of the Japanese group proper. Japan, however, has a base on the great island of Formosa, which lies off the South China coast. Between this island and the Philippines there are only about 250 miles of sea.

Q.—Is Manila very far from Yokohama?

A.—Relatively those two points occupy about the same geographical positions as do Hampton Roads, the American naval base in Chesapeake Bay, and the southern West Indies. Yokohama and Tokio (both lying on the same big harbor) would about correspond in position with Norfolk and Fortress Monroe (speaking roughly). The West Indian island of Martinique about corresponds in position with that of Manila. The Japanese base of Formosa is about half as far from Manila as our Cuban naval base, Guantanamo, is from Panama.

Q.—Has Japan profited greatly by the European war?

A.—She has profited immensely. Her war expenses were very slight up to 1918, and her trade expansion was such that a British expert said that the war had created two especially dangerous claimants to Great Britain's commercial power—the United States and Japan. In 1914 Japan was importing more than she exported, the difference against her being about 16 million dollars. In 1917 she was exporting so much more than she imported that, instead of owing the outer world money, the outer world owed her 290 million dollars. She doubled her foreign trade, or almost doubled it, during the first three years of war.

Q.—What is Japan s foreign trade?

A.—For the calendar year 1917 the figures are: exports, 800 million dollars; imports, 500 millions. In 1913 her exports were 300 millions and her imports 360 million dollars.

Q.—What does Japan import mostly?

A.—Iron and raw cotton are the big imports. Wool, machinery and copper come next in value.

Q.—How big is Japan's merchant fleet?

A.—Government encouragement of shipbuilding has given Japan a formidable merchant fleet in a very short period of time. At the end of 1916 there were 3,759 steamships under the Japanese flag, with a gross tonnage of 1,716,104. The constructive ability of the country had been enhanced to such a degree that there were 224 private shipyards, and 61 private dry-docks in the islands. Vessels building in the beginning of 1917 were 182, all more than 700 gross tons, and totaling about 638,000 tons.

Q.—Do Japanese merchant ships make money?

A.—They have been making amazing profits. During 1916 one line, the Okazaki Steamship Company, paid dividends at the rate of 720 per cent on the market value of the stock. It has seven steamships with gross tonnage of about 18,000. Its capital was only 300,000 yen ($150,000), and it earned 1,900,000 yen or $950,000. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha earned $31,400,000. The Osaka Mercantile Steamship Company earned $20,000,000. The dividends paid in 1916 by various lines (some quite small) were 345 per cent, 387 per cent, 200 per cent and 165 per cent. All told, the average earnings of the Japanese shipping companies are figured as having been close to 85 per cent, or even 90 per cent, in 1916. They earned almost a dollar on every gross ton in the islands.

Q.—Was Japan not weak financially before the big war?

A.—She was slowly recovering from the financial exhaustion of the Russo-Japanese War, and she was considered not a very strong nation financially. But by 1918 she had thrived so from the chance that the big war gave her at the world's markets that she was able to lend money to the Allies. Up to about April, 1918, she had loaned nearly 650 million dollars.

Q.—Why did Japan enter the European war?

A.—Japan explained her entry into the war by declaring that her treaty with Great Britain made it incumbent on her to do so. This was the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of 1902, made before the Russo-Japanese War. Its direct object, according to its clauses, was the maintenance of the situation then existent in Korea and Manchuria. It stipulated that should either of the parties to the treaty become involved in war with a single power, the other party should maintain "benevolent neutrality." If attacked by two powers, the other was bound to come to its aid.

In 1905 the treaty was extended to protect British interests in India and Afghanistan, while Japan got a free hand in Korea.

Q.—What were the famous 21 Japanese demands on China?

A.—On January 18, 1915, Japan suddenly laid before China a series of demands relating most comprehensively to Shan-tung province, the Yangtse valley, South Manchuria and Eastern Mongolia. The demands were in five sections, and the most serious demands were in section five, which the Japanese failed to make public to the Allied powers or the world. In fact, there were denials sent out that there was such a section, but the Chinese Government published the fact. After long negotiations Japan delivered an ultimatum, in May, 1915, and China accepted the four sections, leaving section five for future negotiations. The agreement transferred to Japan all the German rights in Shan-tung province, and extended the lease of Port Arthur and the South Manchurian railroad for 99 years. There was another clause giving Japanese "preference in South Manchuria as foreign advisers, instructors, political, financial, military and police."

Q.—What was the Japanese-American Agreement?

A.—On November 2, 1917, Viscount Ishii for Japan and Secretary Lansing for the United States exchanged notes clarifying the policy of the United States and Japan regarding China. The important points of the agreement were: "The Governments of the United States and Japan recognize that territorial propinquity creates special relations between countries, and consequently the Government of the United States recognizes that Japan has special interests in China, particularly in the part to which her possessions are contiguous. The territorial sovereignty of China, nevertheless, remains unimpaired, and the Government of the United States has every confidence in the repeated assurances of the Japanese Government that, while geographical position gives Japan such special interests, they have no desire to discriminate against the trade of other nations. . . . Moreover, they mutually declare that they are opposed to the acquisition by any Government of any special rights or privileges that would affect the independence or territorial integrity of China, or that would deny to the subjects or citizens of any country the full enjoyment of equal opportunities in the commerce and industries of China." The Chinese Government has issued a statement protesting and refusing to be bound by agreements concerning it entered into by other Powers.

Q.—What active part did Japan take in the war?

A.—In November, 1914, she forced the surrender of Kiaou-Chau, the province in China which Germany had acquired as indemnity for the Boxer outrages, and from which as a base she was extending a railway system into China in furtherance of German commerce.

Japan was Great Britain's ally in the East. She despatched an ultimatum to Germany August 15, 1914, demanding the departure of German ships from Chinese waters and the transfer of Kiaou-Chau to Japan as first step to its return to Chinese control.

The time limit of the ultimatum was August 23, and on that day Japan declared war upon Germany. After a siege of eight weeks Kiaou-Chau was surrendered and Germany's rule in the Far East was at an end.

Q.—Did Japan agree to return Kiaou-Chau to China?

A.—In her ultimatum to Germany, August 16, 1914, Japan demanded of Germany that she deliver over her territory of Kiaou-Chau. The second clause in this ultimatum read:

"Second—To deliver on a date not later than September 15 (1914), to the Imperial Japanese authorities, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiaou-Chau, with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China."

Q.—Did Japanese participate in the destruction of Admiral von Spee's fleet?

A.—No. There were no Japanese vessels on the scene at all. They did help in a way, however, for they helped the *Australia* and other British ships chase von Spee out of the Pacific, around the Horn, to his fate off the Falklands.

Q.—Did Japan have a secret treaty with the Czar?

A.—Japan had a secret treaty with the Czar's Government. It was signed in June, 1916, between Sazonoff, then Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Viscount Motono, Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The treaty provided that if any other nation made war against either Russia or Japan over the Chinese question, the parties to the treaty should be allies in the war.

The Trotzky-Lenine Government found the treaty in the Russian secret files and immediately made it public.

Q.—How big is Japan's navy?

A.—Japan stands fifth among naval powers, with Great Britain, the United States, Germany and France leading her. In 1917 she had 10 dreadnaughts built and completing, 26 pre-dreadnaughts and armored cruisers, 25 protected cruisers, scouts, etc., 77 destroyers, 26 torpedo boats, and 16 submarines.

Q.—How big is Japan's army?

A.—Japan has universal obligatory military service, her population being divided into various "bans," or reserve lines, much on the German model. The "peace-strength" (which apparently means the standing army and the men serving their military course at the time) is given as about a quarter of a million men. The war strength is about 30,000 men in the regular army, 200,000 in the reserves, one million as reinforcements, and a large force of territorial army material whose size is not stated.

Q.—Can Japan support her own population agriculturally?

A.—Japanese experts hold that if the people would cultivate land at present unused which is inclined at an angle of less than 15 degrees (terracing and otherwise improving these hill-sides like the Chinese) the area of arable land in Japan might be doubled. It is estimated that in Hokkaido, the northernmost island of the archipelago, there is enough uncultivated land to take care of the surplus Japanese population for many years to come. As the people farm now, they are crowded so densely in limited areas that, though the population of Japan actually is less dense than that of England or Belgium, the population per square mile occupied is given approximately as follows: England 466, Belgium 702, Japan 2,688. This would give the Japanese at present less than a quarter-acre of land for each person.

Q.—Is the cost of living notably low in Japan?

A.—The actual cost of living is not so low as might be thought, but the Japanese workman does without the comforts and pleasures enjoyed by his fellow workman in other lands. Not only is thrift required, but great self-denial, to make ends meet in the Mikado's kingdom. The price of rice is practically the same in Japan as it is in America. Sugar and salt cost practically the same in Japan as in England. Tea is cheaper, but fuel is much dearer. Meat is more expensive in Japan, but fish is cheaper. Beef sells in Japan at 25 cents per pound, horse meat at 13 cents, and pork at 14 cents. These are for the cheapest cuts. Butter, cheese, milk and cream are about as expensive in Japan as they are in England. Eggs are cheaper there; the best grades selling the year round at 18 cents a dozen, but the eggs of Japan are small and of inferior quality. Rent is cheaper, but the houses are of very light construction, and give no protection from the cold of winter. Clothing in the European style costs about the same in Japan as in England. Japanese clothing is actually more expensive than European, and many Japanese adopt the foreign style of dress out of motives of economy. But, of course, the poor Japanese spend much less on dress than we do; in fact, during the greater part of the year the climate is such that the lower classes seldom wear much more than the compulsory loin cloth.

Q.—Please give some idea of the wages paid in Japan.

A.—Official reports in 1913 gave the following daily wages: Silk spinners, 30 sen (15 cents); weavers, 21 cents; dyers, 25 cents; tailors, 29 cents; shoemakers, 37 cents; carpenters, 44 cents; plasterers, 46 cents; stone-cutters, 50 cents; printers, 27 cents.

These wages were not for an 8-hour day, but for from 10 to 16 hours.

Q.—Is there a Socialist movement in Japan?

A.—Yes. It is, however, strongly repressed by the Government. In 1911 twelve leaders of a very radical socialist movement were charged with plotting the assassination of the Mikado. They were executed January 25, 1911, and from that time the Government has strictly prohibited the Socialist movement. In spite of this, it is said that the teaching is spreading among the common people.

Q.—Who were the Samurai?

A.—They were the military class of old Japan—largely retainers supported by feudal chiefs. Socially they stood next below the throne and the nobles. Below them (very far below) came the common people. They were fierce, giving their enemies no quarter. But they had a decidedly high code of honor of their own.

COST OF WAR (AMERICA)

Q.—What does the whole war cost the world every minute?

A.—Counting the United States expenditures in, it was estimated early in 1918 (on the basis of the most conservative and exact figures available) that the money cost alone was $80,000 a minute. A United States Government estimate of the daily expenditures of all the belligerents would make the sum per minute $81,249. This estimate (published March 1, 1918) was that the rate of daily expenditure then was $116,700,000.

Q.—How does the whole war-cost compare with world-wealth?

A.—All the wheat lands of the globe, producing at maximum capacity (say 2,500,009,000 bushels at $2 a bushel), could not pay the cost in less than a quarter-century. All the gold mined in the last 65 years (from 1850 to 1916) could not pay more than 1/7 of the cost of the first three years of war. All the revenues for a year of all the nations in the world, if they were all put together, would pay only 15 per cent of the mere money cost from August, 1914, to April, 1918. The money that one year of war costs would almost pay all the national debts of every country in the entire world, from the United States to Siam.

Q.—What does the war cost America alone monthly?

A.—In round figures, one billion dollars a month (in February, 1918).

The exact figures were: November, 1917, $982,000,000; December, 1917, $1,105,000,000; January, 1918, $1,090,000,000; February, 1918, $1,002,878,608; of which $665,400,000 was for war expenses, and $325,000,000 was for loans to the Allies.

Q.—How does our war-bill compare with normal expenditures?

A.—Frank A. Vanderlip, of the National City Bank, New York, says that, whereas the total expenditures of the United States Treasury since its first organization under Alexander Hamilton down through the War of 1812, the Civil War, and the Spanish War (including expenses of these wars, and for every other purpose whatsoever connected with the government), have amounted to a little more than $26,000,000,000, we are now undertaking to spend in a single year no less than $21,000,000,000 (for all purposes, including war).

Q.—Are not interest charges on war-debts enormous?

A.—The United States, at the end of one year only, had obligated itself to pay $225,000,000 annually as interest on loans. (Much of this would be offset by interest received on money advanced to the Allies.) Great Britain's interest charges at the end of four years exceeded one billion dollars annually—a sum larger than its normal peace expenditures.

Q.—To what extent are we lending money to the Allies?

A.—Soon after our entrance into the war, Congress authorized loans to nations "at war with enemies of the United States." By the end of 1917, $7,000,000,000 had been authorized, and more than $4,000,000,000 had been advanced. Of this, Great Britain had received nearly half, France one-fourth, and the rest had gone to Italy, Russia, Belgium, and Serbia. These loans took the form of credits for the purchase of supplies, the United States Government accepting in return securities issued by the foreign governments.

Q.—Is there so much money in the world?

A.—There is not nearly enough actual cash in the world to even begin to pay the running expenditures of the world for war. If all the belligerents were confronted suddenly with the inexorable necessity of paying instantly, in actual cash, for everything as they get it or use it, they would simply have to stop right then and there. It would be physically impossible to find the cash.

For instance, the money in the whole United States on March 1, 1918, was $6,351,584,056. That is, if the government could have gotten every cent that every individual owned, if it could have scraped every bank and every business clean, it could not have raised even enough cash to pay out the $7,000,000,000 loans to the Allies authorized by Congress.

Q.—How can the war continue if cash is lacking?

A.—Even in peace there is never enough cash in the world actually to pay "on the nail" for the business that is done by the world. The big fact is that cash (currency) is only a token. Even gold is valuable only because the world chooses to call it so. Credit is the real world-medium. The world pays itself with paper that has credit (trust) behind it. All the national paper currency of the world is essentially not different from the notes, bills of lading, invoices, and other paper, which form the bulk of the world's commercial structure. Even coins are valuable mostly because of the credit of the government that issues them. Intrinsically they may not be worth much. You might, for instance, have to hawk an American copper cent pretty far and wide if you were forced to use it simply on its value as copper, though the copper is there, sure enough. We have seen what has happened to the Russian rouble, and the German mark. Yet, technically, these values are supposed to be backed by actual coin.

Q.—Just what do the billion-figures mean?

A.—"Billions" really are so big that even the financial expert does not get a sharp image in his mind. We can all understand hundreds, thousands, and even millions; but "billions" mean only dead mathematical figures to most of us.

We can give you a sort of picture, however—of the significance of our war-loans, for instance. Let us take the exact figures, which were (on January 26, 1918) 4 billions, 247 millions, and 400 thousand dollars. That sum (handled within a few months, indeed, almost in a few weeks) was 1½ times the size of our whole national debt at the end of the Civil War.

Q.—Can the huge war-loans possibly be re-paid?

A.—That is a question that the world's greatest financiers have not been able to answer. If the debts to us stood alone, they would not be so very enormous as compared with the possible resources of the Allied nations. But, in view of the enormous wastage of the war, it is quite impossible to calculate how normal revenues may be restored, and how enough additional revenues may be raised to pay the huge accumulations of abnormal debt.

Q.—How did we pay our Civil War debt?

A.—Although the national debt at the end of the Civil War was not altogether three billions of dollars, it was a sum which simply appalled men in that generation, for the world was absolutely parochial in finances as compared with today. The whole world stared aghast at the debt. Many perfectly honorable and talented men saw no possible way out of it except by repudiation.

But the war had hardly closed, when an entire new world of wealth was torn open almost over night. The armies that had been fighting turned to a new and wonderful fight. They fought to open the great West. They burst into the plains. They built the Union Pacific transcontinental railroad. It was as if a new and bountiful continent suddenly had been added to the earth. By 1893, the great debt had dwindled down to $893,000,000. Forty-two years after the war (1907), the last penny had been paid, and it had been paid by new and ever-increasing wealth that sprang from the new territory, so that individual citizens hardly even knew that there was a national debt.

Q.—Is any hidden world-wealth left to pay for this war?

A.—There is a huge amount that is absolutely untouched or has been only partially exploited. Even in old Europe, crowded and intensively exploited though it seems, there is a great deal. It may be that Germany, France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom have exploited their natural wealth pretty closely; but the other countries of Europe, each and every one, still conceal treasures that require only concerted and earnest effort to produce very great values.

Q.—What are some of the hidden resources of Europe?

A.—Spain's mines and agricultural resources, especially herds, with the resulting leather and food products; Italy's Campagna, which, by sanitation (to eliminate pernicious malaria), can be made to produce at least doubly; Russia's oil-fields, which alone should produce enough under modern scientific development to replace a vast part of the world's coal; the wheat-fields of Russian Ukraine, often said to be the richest black earth in the known world; Serbia's wheat-fields and copper mines; Roumania's oil-wells; the forests of Norway and Sweden, and,

greater still, the wonderful and practically unused water-powers of Norway, which alone could do the work now done for the world by extravagant use of millions of tons of coal.

Q.—Is there unused world-territory comparable to our West in 1865?

A.—Yes. Siberia is a bigger territory than the whole United States, and it should prove to be even richer in both agricultural and mining possibilities than was the West of 1865. Siberia alone might well pay the debts of all the world. You must get out of your mind the old idea of Siberia as a forbidding country. You must think of it as you think of the United States—a country that has bleak Alaska and semi-tropical Florida within it. Siberia has territory that remains frozen the year around. It also has territories so mild that tropical beasts like the tiger dwell in it. If the European world were working in unison, to build railroads on a colossal scale into Siberia and across Russia, the wealth that might be expected to flow back would very probably pay the whole war wastage within two generations, and almost without burden on European people.

Q.—How does Siberia compare with the United States?

A.—In area Siberia has 4,800,000 (odd) square miles as against 2,974,000 square miles of the United States. The Siberian population is so small that it amounts to only 2 inhabitants to the square mile against 31 inhabitants to the square mile in our country. Siberia has only 15 important cities against more than 125 very thriving and important American cities. All the railroads in Siberia have only 8,000 miles of track against more than 255,000 miles in the United States.

Q.—Would the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad do much toward new wealth?

A.—Yes. It would tap the ancient scene of the only truly scientific agriculture that the earth once knew. In Asia Minor the civilizations of Assyria and the Semites had irrigation works on a scale that would be considered majestic even to-day. They extracted from that great Asiatic peninsula almost everything that they actually needed—lumber, grains, meats, textile materials. They, or rather their degenerated successors, over-exploited the territory. They cut down the forests, for one thing; and that one thing alone meant the doom of the area, for when the forests (the earth's storage plants for rainfall) were destroyed, the rainfalls made floods that tore the soil from mountain-sides and valleys and left them bare; and when there was no rainfall, there was no stored water to continue to feed the parched land. The irrigation works became useless, and were abandoned. The inhabitants became wretched. All these things can be restored now.

Q.—What is the size of the Asia Minor territory?

A.—Asia Minor has 200,000 square miles—an area that compares closely with that of New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania put together (245,500 square miles). The Asia Minor territory contains 17 million acres under some sort of cultivation. Of minerals it contains chrome (valuable for steel making), asphalt, coal, lignite, petroleum, salt, iron, salt, emery and meerschaum. The iron mines (worked by very primitive methods) produce 40,000 tons a year even now.

Q.—Are there other areas to be exploited?

A.—China, exploited in a large and noble sense, could be made to enrich its own teeming multitudes and still to send forth prodigal riches to the rest of us. The same is true of Africa. But such exploitation, if it is to make the world really richer, must not be individual exploitation by any one nation or group of nations. Here we see the great new spiritual, as well as material, value of the American idea of the "open door." It must be made a door that is open to fine and magnanimous world-effort, not to robbers.

Q.—What does America's war share cost an American citizen per day?

A.—At one billion dollars a month, and figuring the population of the United States as approximately 100 million people, one year of war would cost each American $120 a year, or 32⅞ cents a day.

Q.—What does every minute of war cost us Americans alone?

A.—At the rate of twelve billion dollars a year, every minute costs us $22,831. Take out your watch and look at the sec-

ond-hand. Every time it moves, the country will have spent $380.50 for the war. Every hour more than a million dollars has been spent ($1,369,863 to be exact). Every day costs more than 32 millions ($32,876,712 exactly).

Q.—Does the United States possess nearly all the gold coin in the world?

A.—No. Not nearly; but the United States possesses twice as much gold as the country with the next largest store. Extraordinary purchases by the Allied nations since the outbreak of the war have poured gold into the United States. From August, 1914, to the middle of 1917, the United States received $1,000,000,000 more gold than she exported. Early in 1918 the total stock of gold in the country was more than $2,500,000,000. It is held largely in the vaults of the Federal reserve banks, the Government, and the commercial banks, where it makes possible the credit structure which maintains industry in the United States.

Q.—What is repudiation?

A.—Repudiation is a refusal to pay a debt or obligation. National repudiation really does not differ in essence from individual repudiation. But while the individual can be haled to court and be forced to defend his case before a superior power (the governmental power of his country) a nation cannot be taken to court because as yet there is no obligatory international court. In international observance each nation is absolutely the equal of every other. Therefore, if it chooses to repudiate a debt, the other nations have no recourse except to slow and complex diplomacy or to violence.

Q.—Do nations ever repudiate their debts?

A.—Much of the world's trouble has come from repudiation in one form or another, especially by weak nations—the so-called backward nations. But great nations also have repudiated their debts, or certain debts. Certain of the war-debts of European nations really have never been paid. They were not necessarily repudiated outright, but by a successive series of taxations and other revenue laws they were wiped out.

Q.—How might the present war-debts be repudiated?

A.—They might be repudiated outright, but that is highly unlikely—almost impossible, indeed, considering the internal politics and the external complications, not to mention that delicate point "national honor."

There are, however, many ways in which they can be wiped out legally, in a way that would be repudiation to all intents and purposes, and still not bear the onus of the name. Thus, income and other taxes could be laid to affect the classes that naturally are the holders of war-bonds. These imposts could be made so heavy that they would not only equal the interest that governments have to pay on the bonds, but they could be made so great as gradually to pay off the war-bonds themselves—a case of making the creditor actually pay out of his pocket what the other fellow owes him.

Another form of repudiation would be to issue a new loan with a very big rate of interest. It would not need to be a large loan. The mere fact of such a bond being available would automatically and irresistibly depress the existing war-bonds. As soon as these sank to a sufficiently low price, the government might buy up part or all of them, and thus do like a debtor who induces his creditors to take fifty cents (more or less) on the dollar.

Q.—Have the big governments ever thus repudiated their debts?

A.—Yes. One of the very great governments of the world (it would not be fair to name it, without explaining at great length the very intricate financial considerations that are involved) has not paid its great war debts incurred during the Napoleonic wars. By successive diminutions of interest and increases of taxes it has happened, slowly but inevitably, that the security representing this national debt fell during the past century from above par (100) to a little over half of par (52). Even before the great war the government could at any time have bought up its own debt at sums as low as 65 cents on the dollar. Most of this debt was held by its own people and, therefore, did not greatly affect other nations.

Since the great war began, this security has fallen to the still lower figure just mentioned. Thus, quite automatically, and without spending a penny (on the contrary, actually by making money through decreased interest payments and increased tax collection), this particular government has practically eliminated almost one-half of that particular war-debt.

Q.—Has the United States ever defaulted on its obligations?

A.—Never. Some of the states repudiated bonds and other obligations, but even these cases were based on a plea of justification. Some states repudiated bond issues by negro and "carpet-bag" legislatures during reconstruction after the Civil War. There has been much conflict of opinion about the justice of this attitude, and the general belief appears to be that, whether the pleas in extenuation are sound or not, it would have been far better for the credit of the whole country had the obligations been honored, even though they were fraudulently laid. However, these were purely local debts. The Federal Government has so well met all its obligations that a United States bond is one of the best securities anywhere in the world.

Q.—Could the war-debts be wiped out without new sources of wealth?

A.—Yes, they might be, though no one is daring enough to prophesy that they actually can be. At best, such a settlement would have to be adjusted over a long period of years. If a nation could survive economically with war taxes continued after peace has come, the debt might possibly be wiped out in a single generation. Great Britain, at the end of its third fiscal year, had produced one dollar in war taxes for every seven dollars of war expenditure. Some lucrative forms of war taxation would end with the war, and substitutes would have to be found.

Q.—What does the war cost the European nations?

A.—At the end of the first three years of war (August, 1917), excluding the United States, which had only just begun to spend money, and counting only the actual cash spent by the European belligerents and not the war damages (which are literally incalculable), the total was estimated officially in Washington as a little more than 88 billions of dollars, with the cost per month increasing steadily. The detailed official figures were:

United Kingdom	$26,705,000,000
France	16,530,000,000
Russia	14,250,000,000
Italy	5,050,000,000
Other Allies	3,250,000,000
Total	$65,785,000,000
Less advances of one power to another	7,992,500,000
Net total for Allies	$57,792,500,000
Germany	19,750,000,000
Austria-Hungary	9,700,000,000
Bulgaria and Turkey	1,450,000,000
Total	$30,900,000,000
Less advances	600,000,000
Net total for enemy	$30,300,000,000
Grand total	$88,092,500,000

Q.—What were the total war borrowings of the European belligerents?

A.—There has been some wonderfully complex financing and this, together with statements made purposely intricate (to mislead the enemy), has perplexed even astute financial experts. The U. S. Committee on Public Information announced early in 1918:

"As long ago as in April, 1916, the approximate amounts of the loans contracted for war purposes by the different belligerent powers were stated to be $19,881,731,110 for the Allies (of which sum $7,903,145,000 was for Great Britain and $6,590,053,000 for France), and $9,206,750,000 for the enemy powers ($6,415,250,000 for Germany). This was a grand total of $29,088,481,110 for all war loans.

Many new ones have, of course, been made since the date mentioned.

Q.—How do American war-loan subscriptions compare with the British?

A.—After two and a half years of war, Britain floated a loan of $5,000,000,000, with 5,289,000 subscribers. In its second loan (limited to $4,500,000,000), the United States (with twice Britain's population) received applications for $4,617,532,000 from 9,500,000 subscribers.

Q.—How much does the United States take from individual incomes?

A.—The old income tax levied on incomes over $3,000. The war measure of 1917 levies on incomes of $1,000 (single), $2,000 (married). Additional graduated taxes lie on incomes exceeding $5,000. This taxes incomes between $5,000 and $7,500 1 per cent in addition to old tax;

$7,500 and $10,000, 2 per cent; $10,000 and $12,000, 3 per cent; $12,500 and $15,000, 4 per cent; over $500,000, from 50 per cent up to 63 per cent.

Q.—What is the purpose of War Savings Stamps and Certificates?

A.—To encourage thrift and to enable persons with meager incomes to lend even small sums to the Government. Stamps affixed to a certificate are redeemable in five years at $5 each. They cost from $4.12 in January, 1918, with an increase of 1 cent for each succeeding month. Thrift Stamps were also issued, costing 25 cents each, bearing no interest, but exchangeable for War Savings Stamps, which do bear interest as shown.

Q.—What were our cash assets in February, 1918?

A.—The total cash assets of the Government were $4,027,919,548, which included $2,401,135,506 gold, $491,673,559 silver, and the balance of the general fund.

Q.—How has the United States sought to finance its war activities?

A.—By increasing national income (taxation), and by borrowing money (domestic loans).

Q.—What were the principal war-taxes in the revenue measure of 1917?

A.—The revenue bill of October 13, 1917, carried a so-called "excess profits" tax, while income taxes and postal rates were increased, and additional imposts were placed on liquor and tobacco. There were also war-taxes on theater and railway tickets, club dues, and various minor imposts.

Q.—How much income can we figure on?

A.—The Treasury Department figured that in the fiscal year (July 1, 1917, to July, 1918) the receipts from our internal taxes would be $3,400,000,000.

Customs and miscellaneous revenue had swelled the ordinary receipts early in 1918 to $768,677,000, and receipts from liberty loans, certificates, war savings and other public debt sources had been $9,811,668,000, making the government's total receipts in the first 8 months of war $10,583,684,000. The war-savings movement brought $75,000,000 in three months.

Q.—How many bonds did the United States issue during its first year of war?

A.—Two "Liberty Loans" were issued to the public in 1917, and a third was opened for subscription in April, 1918. The first loan, bearing 3½ per cent interest, was offered in June, 1917, and was limited to $2,000,000,000. The total amount subscribed was $3,035,226,850, an over-subscription of about 50 per cent. The number of subscriptions were more than 4,000,000. The second loan at 4 per cent, was offered in October, 1917, and was limited to $3,000,000,000 and 50 per cent of subscriptions in excess of that amount. $3,808,766,150 worth of bonds were issued. The two loans, covering the first year of war, yielded $5,808,766,150.

Q.—How many Liberty Loan bonds have been sold again by investors?

A.—The Secretary of the Treasury estimated on March 1, 1918—after eight months of trading—that about $180,000,000 worth of the bonds had been resold. This was approximately 3 per cent of the total then issued by the Government. Many of the same bonds, however, had been sold over and over again, so the percentage is not really so large as this.

Q.—How does the war-cost compare with investment in navies?

A.—The combined sum spent in 1913 by Great Britain, Germany, and the United States on their navies for construction, maintenance, pay, cruising, repairs, coal and dock-yard expenses would pay for just 4 days and 8 hours of the war.

Q.—Is there a widely circulated dollar coin that has no legal recognition?

A.—Yes. It is known as the Maria Theresa dollar, and is widely used throughout Arabia and northeastern Africa, though it has absolutely no sanction of any government behind it, and, indeed, has been declared a prohibited article more than once. It is a silver dollar with the image of Maria Theresa, the famous Empress of Austria, and it is reported that the Arab traders used to circulate as many as 200 millions of them,

and were doing so when the war began.

This silver coin originally was minted by Austria in Maria Theresa's time. She was beautiful, and her image appealed to the Orientals. When the Austrian Government ceased to mint or use the coin, they continued to mint it and have been minting it ever since—a private, unlegalized piece of money that still bears the date of the original genuine coins—1780.

Lately great quantities of this curious "people's money" have been coming into the assay offices of the world, because the high price of silver has induced the traders to deliver the coins to be melted.

Q.—What have our previous wars cost?

A.—The War of 1812 with Great Britain cost us 120 millions, in round figures. The war with Mexico cost us 173 millions, in round figures. The Civil War cost the North alone 3 billions, 480 millions. The Spanish-American War cost 1 billion, 905 millions.

Q.—What did our past wars cost per year?

A.—The War of 1812 cost us at the rate of 44 millions a year. The Mexican War cost at the rate of 77 millions a year. The Civil War costs were at the rate of 580 millions a year. The Spanish-American War (which lasted as an active military war less than a year), cost at the rate of 2 billions, 540 millions a year—that is, if it had continued actively throughout a whole year, at the rate of expenditure, it would have amounted to that sum.

These figures show strikingly how the cost of war has increased with each generation.

Q.—What has modern Europe spent for wars?

A.—According to the United States Treasury Department, the figures are, exclusive of the Franco-Prussian War:

1793-1815	England and France	$6,250,000,000
1812-1815	France and Russia	450,625,000
1828	Russia and Turkey	100,000,000
1830-1840	Spain and Portugal (civil war)	250,000,000
1830-1847	France and Algeria	190,000,000
1848	Revolts in Europe	50,000,000
1854-1856	England	371,000,000
	France	332,000,000
1854-1856	Sardinia and Turkey	128,000,000
	Austria	68,600,000
	Russia	800,000,000
	France	75,000,000
1859	Austria	127,000,000
	Italy	51,000,000
1864	Denmark, Prussia, and Austria	36,000,000
1866	Prussia and Austria	330,000,000
1864-1870	Brazil, Argentina, and Paraguay	240,000,000
1865-1866	France and Mexico	65,000,000
1876-1877	Russia	806,547,489
	Turkey	403,273,745
1900-1901	Transvaal Republic and England	1,000,100,000
1904-1905	Russia and Japan	2,500,000,000
	The cost of the Balkan wars	1,264,000,000

The total sum is a little over 15 billions 880 millions.

COST OF WAR (ALLIES)

Q.—What have all the world's wars cost?

A.—All the wars of the world (counting in the tremendous Napoleonic wars and all our American wars) cost 24 billions 100 millions. The present war had cost 110 billions up to March, 1918.

Q.—Is it true that war-expenses are at an ever-increasing rate?

A.—In Great Britain during the first four months of the struggle, the expenditure averaged 4 1/3 million dollars a day. During the first quarter of 1915 the daily rate passed above 7 million dollars. By July of that year it was 15 millions, and three months later it was 17½ millions. By February, 1916, the rate was 22 million dollars; by May, 25 millions, and by October, 1916, 28½ million dollars a day. Since then the daily rate has passed 30 million dollars. On March 7, 1918, Bonar Law, Chancellor of the Exchequer, announced that the Empire's daily war-expenses (up to February 9, 1918) had become $31,906,362.

Q.—How long would it be before the British war-debt could be wiped out?

A.—A careful (though anonymous) published analysis has shown that even with double the ordinary peace revenue, Britain's war-debt (up to 1918) could not be paid off until 43 years had gone by—and that would mean, you must note, the entire use of the entire revenues for nothing else except to pay off interest and debt.

Q.—How much gold is there in sovereigns?

A.—Eleven-twelfths of a sovereign is gold and one-twelfth is copper, but the gold in the sovereign is worth the face value of the coin. From one ounce of standard gold (11/12 fine) sovereigns to the value of £3 17s. 10½d. are coined. In other words, a sovereign is an ingot of standard gold 123.27447 grains weight. Being of an established weight of gold, it gives full gold value in whatever form it may be, since Great Britain has free coinage. The State loses the value of the alloy and the workmanship in making sovereigns.

Q.—What is Free Coinage?

A.—Free coinage means that the Government does not make a profit by coining a precious metal. It means that any person can deliver any quantity of gold to the mint and receive an equivalent amount of gold back in sovereigns with the alloy given in free.

Q.—What is a sovereign worth in American money?

A.—It is worth $4.8665. This is the exact change you would get in normal times if you exchanged a sovereign at your bank. For convenience in figuring, the value of a sovereign or pound sterling is usually taken as $5 when only round numbers are required.

Q.—Why did sovereigns bring only $4.76 in New York in 1917?

A.—Because the exchange rate between Great Britain and America had fallen at the moment to 4.76 dollars, not the usual one of 4.86 dollars. The reasons for exchange are too complicated to explain in a short answer, but, broadly speaking, fluctuations in exchange are due to fluctuations in the indebtedness of any nation as against others.

The war had caused a tremendous trade balance in favor of the United States. Single sovereigns, in consequence, were actually regarded as token money, just as twenty separate shillings would be; but if, instead of trying to change single sovereigns as a traveler naturally does, he took a couple of hundred of them to the mint in Washington to be melted up, he would get the full value of the gold, viz., 4.86 dollars.

It is this failure to obtain full value for gold sovereigns in hotels and shops in New York and other American cities which has caused many people to think that the amount of gold in a sovereign was actually worth less than $4.86.

Q.—Is Great Britain's daily war-cost much greater than that of France?

A.—Taking a mean sum based on an estimate made in Washington before the costs reached the maximum figures that we have given elsewhere, Great Britain's

daily cost does not, under the best circumstances, fall below $30,000,000 any one day.

France (on the same basis of medium figures) is spending $15,369,000 a day. The actual figures are greater, beyond doubt, but we are trying to give absolutely bottom calculations.

Q.—Is not the war-cost small as against England's whole wealth?

A.—Never before in England's history has a war (or any other national or international catastrophe) so much as scratched her wealth noticeably. But this war has almost laid an axe to its very basis. A fair estimate of England's wealth (the United Kingdom) is $85,000,000,000. England's war cost by March, 1918, was at least $30,000,000,000—more than 1/3 of her whole national wealth, or exactly 1/5 of the total wealth of the entire British Empire. (On March 7, 1918, a new vote of credit was "moved" in the House of Commons. It was for 500,000,000 pounds, and it brought the total since war began to $33,293,000,000.)

Q.—What money has Great Britain loaned to its Allies?

A.—Up to August 1. 1917, the total was:

Loans to Dominions.....	$ 730,000,000
Loans to Allies.....	5,125,000,000
Total	$5,855,000,000

Q.—Are all these loans recoverable?

A.—No. Bonar Law, Chancellor of the Exchequer, said in 1918 that at that time only $1,300,000,000 were recoverable.

The loans made to Belgium probably never will be collected, but will be cancelled as a matter of generosity and justice both. Serbia, Montenegro and Roumania probably never could repay their borrowings even if pressed.

Q.—Has Great Britain borrowed much?

A.—Much of the British financing is done by using so-called Treasury bills and Exchequer bonds (short-term note financing, broadly speaking). Of these, not less than $5,000,000,000 were outstanding in September, 1917.

By straight loans the following sums were obtained:

Nov., 1914—3½ per cent...	$1,750,000,000
Nov., 1915—4½ per cent...	$3,080,000,000
Nov., 1917—5 per cent...	$5,000,000,000
Total	$9,830,000,000

Q.—How much money had Great Britain borrowed after three years?

A.—Great Britain had borrowed, in one form and another, $17,875,000,000.

Q.—Did the war increase Great Britain's national debt?

A.—Yes, it increased the national debt enormously. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, speaking in Parliament, estimated that at the end of the fiscal year, 1917-1918 it would "not exceed 28 billions 709 millions." The national debt of Great Britain before the war had been less than 3 billions 500 millions.

Q.—How many British war saving certificates have been bought?

A.—Up to January 26, 1918, certificates to the face value of $550,000,000 had been purchased. This was two years after the scheme had been adopted.

Q.—Has England considered the conscription of capital?

A.—Yes. There has long been a strong party in England which urged that not only should the income taxes be increased, but that the Government should go boldly to property owners and take a percentage of their capital, to help defray the horrible expenditure for the war. Even Chancellor Bonar Law and Premier Lloyd George are understood to be sympathetic to the idea.

The trouble is that the 85 billions of values is not held as cash, and it would be obviously impossible for a whole nation to start selling property at the same time, to raise money for taxes. To meet this difficulty, it has been proposed to collect this tax in installments spread over a number of years, but in that case it becomes substantially just an income tax.

Q.—What is the income tax in Great Britain?

A.—When the war began, the income tax stood at 1 shilling 2 pence; it was increased to 2 shillings 6 pence in the pound

in July, 1915; to 3 shillings 6 pence in December, 1915; and to 5 shillings in 1916. In addition, there was a super-tax of 3 shillings 6 pence in the pound for large incomes.

Q.—At five shillings, does this not take away one-quarter of one's income?

A.—Yes. The weight of the 5 shilling income tax is, however, made easier to those whose incomes do not exceed £2,500, as far as the earned part is concerned. That earned part will now pay 2 shillings 3 pence to £500 ($2,500); 2 shillings 6 pence to £1,000; 3 shillings to £1,500; 3 shillings 8 pence to £2,000; and 4 shillings 4 pence in the pound when the earned income does not exceed £2,500, at which figure the super-tax becomes payable, if the whole income exceeds £3,000.

And so, also, when an unearned income does not exceed £2,000 ($10,000), the income tax will be 3 shillings to £500; 3 shillings 6 pence to £1,000; 4 shillings to £1,500; and 4 shillings 6 pence in the pound when the income does not exceed £2,000. This relief is due in addition to any other relief, or where exemption or abatement reduces the taxable amount; but the relief must be on account of the claimant's own income and his own income only.

In figuring this, figure 25 cents to the shilling, 2 cents to the penny, and $5 to the pound, and you will have a close idea of the British tax.

Q.—What proportion of excess profits is taken by the British Government?

A.—Originally 50 per cent, it was then raised to 60 per cent, and for 1917 was to be 80 per cent, calculated to bring the Exchequer £180,000,000 ($878,400,000).

Q.—What were the anticipated revenue and expenditure for 1917-1918?

A.—Bonar Law expected to get £612,500,000 ($2,980,731,250), an increase of $190,000,000 only over last year's receipts. He was imposing increased taxation, which was expected to swell the total to $3,096,000,000. The expenditure for the year was expected to reach $11,145,000,000. Evidently, therefore, at least £1,651,781,000 ($8,037,000,000) would have to be borrowed during the year. The new year was entered on with $89,000,000 in the Treasury, and over $2,400,000,000 Treasury Bills outstanding.

Q.—How much was needed to meet interest on the British war-debt?

A.—In his budget speech in May, 1917, Bonar Law set aside the sum of £211,500,000 ($1,029,264,750 at normal rate of $4.8665 American money to the pound sterling) to meet debt charges. Only £17,000,000 ($82,730,500) of this gigantic sum was for pre-war charges, the rest being due entirely to loans raised since the war began. Actually, therefore, the annual amount which Great Britain has to find for the payment of interest on money lent the government exceeds her total annual pre-war revenue and expenditure.

Q.—What was the exact revenue of Great Britain in pre-war days and what is it now?

	(in round numbers)
1912-13	$919,000,000
1913-14	947,000,000
1914-15	1,103,000,000
1915-16	1,658,000,000
1916-17	2,790,000,000
1917-18 (est.)	2,980,000,000

Q.—What was the cause of the big jump in 1916?

A.—The estimated revenue for 1916-17 was $2,125,000,000, so that actually $665,000,000 more was obtained than was expected. This was chiefly due to the Excess Profits Tax, which brought in $680,000,000, instead of the anticipated $375,000,000, and Income Tax which, expected to bring in $750,000,000, actually yielded $997,500,000.

Q.—How has British duty on tea increased?

A.—In August, 1914, it was raised from 5d. to 8d. per pound. In December, 1915, it was raised to 1s. per pound. The duty on coffee since August, 1914, has been increased to 6d. a pound, the duty on cocoa to 4½d. a pound. The duty on sugar was found at 1s. 10d. per cwt. when the war broke out. It was then advanced to 9s. 4d., and in 1916 to 14s. To the original tobacco duty of 3s. 8d., 1s. 10d. was added in December, 1915. A duty of 6d. a gallon was placed on motor spirits, and some special import duties were imposed on what were regarded as luxuries—33 1/3 per cent on motor cars, musical instruments, clocks, cinema films and the like. The importation of some of these things has now been entirely prohibited. A duty of 3s. 6d. per 10,000 was levied on

imported matches and an excise duty of 3s. 4d. on locally made matches, with a further addition where more than eighty matches were found in a box. Every tinder box was subject to a duty of 5s. The extra duties levied on beer make the whole tax 25s. per barrel. (Figure the English penny (d.) roughly at 2 cents American, and the shilling (s.) roughly at 25 cents.)

Q.—Did Russia raise her costs by tax or loan?

A.—About half of the money needed was raised by means of Treasury bonds, many of which were taken up by the Allies, among others by Japan.

At the end of July, 1916, the war liabilities consisted of:

Roubles	
9,000,000,000	Treasury bonds. ($4,630,000,000)
5,000,000,000	Internal long term bonds. ($2,573,000,000)
7,406,000,000	External long term bonds. ($3,812,000,000)
21,406,000,000	roubles, total. ($11,015,500,000)

This, however, does not anything like represent all her liability at that time, as the Czar's Government had arranged for credits in London to the extent of 2,000,000,000 roubles ($1,029,200,000) to meet liabilities in respect of the foreign purchase of war material. In addition, the Government had issued 4,899,000,000 ($2,498,000,000) worth of paper money since the war started.

The total Russian loans up to the time of the revolution have been estimated as 25 billion dollars.

Q.—What did France expend for the war?

A.—Figures submitted to the French Chamber of Deputies stated that from August 1, 1914, to December 31, 1917, France had appropriated 87,200,000,000 francs for war expenses. This sum, computed at the normal value in American money of 19.3 cents to the franc, is $16,829,600,000.

Q.—How many war loans has France raised?

A.—Only two public loans had been raised to April, 1918. The first realized 15,130,000,000 francs ($2,920,000,000), the second 11,360,000,000 francs ($2,192,000,000). Forty per cent of the first loan was in cash, and 55 per cent of the second.

The French Government, like the British, accepted payment in what was the French equivalent of British Consols, viz., Rentes. In the first loan this Rentes scrip to the value of 4,430,000,000 francs irredeemable 3 per cent, and 24,400,000 francs redeemable 3½ per cent was accepted.

Holders of Rentes were permitted to transfer to the war loans on condition that they took up a definite proportion of war loan stock for cash in addition. The Government also accepted various other State bonds in payment of war loan stock. The reason why the second loan was smaller, and more of it in cash, was due to the fact that so much of the Rentes had been already transferred to the first loan.

Q.—What did the first French loan actually realize?

A.—The first loan realized $2,920,000,000; but, as it was issued at 88, the actual money obtained was only $2,575,000,000.

Q.—What financial advances did France make to its Allies?

A.—During a discussion late in January, 1918, in the Chamber of Deputies, over a bill authorizing further advances to "Allied and friendly nations," a deputy stated that these advances amounted to 408,000,000 francs ($78,294,000), bringing the total advances to 6,421,000,000 francs ($1,239,000,000), and asked the Government's intention regarding the Russian coupons. He said that the French Government already had paid 2,000,000 francs to French holders of Russian bonds, thus favoring them over the holders in other countries of bonds whose coupons had not been paid since the beginning of the war.

Finance Minister Klotz replied that the financial actions taken in the name of Russia were independent of any changes in régime there. The Allies were discussing the question of the Russian coupons. Meanwhile, he said, France would pay the February coupons as it had paid those falling due in January.

Q.—How is it that France borrows from us, yet lends to her Allies?

A.—Neither Great Britain nor France has advanced much actual cash to its Allies. Between them they provided the Belgian Government with what it needed for out-of-pocket expenses, but practic-

ally all the loans were given to pay for supplies manufactured in the country advancing the money. That is, Italy might obtain a large amount of war material from Great Britain, but instead of having to pay for it, the British Government settles the bill for her with the British man ufacturer. Thus, though Italy is liable for the money, and must pay the interest thereon, the money itself actually remains in England all the time.

It is the same with the loans which the United States is granting to the Allies. None of the money thus advanced leaves the United States, but remains in the hands of American manufacturers who have filled orders for England, France, Italy, Belgium and Russia.

Q.—What war loans have the Italians raised?

A.—Their fourth was raised in April, 1917, and realized 3,616,000,000 lire ($697,880,000), of which 2,490,000,000 lire was new money.

Q.—Did Serbia, Roumania and Belgium spend much per day?

A.—About $2,968,000 a day between them, and most of this, of course, was money advanced by the stronger Allies.

Q.—What is Italy's daily war expenditure?

A.—It is about $4,612,000.

Q.—Is this greater than that of Russia?

A.—No. Russia's daily expenditure up to the time of the revolution in March, 1917, was $13,000,000.

COST OF WAR (CENTRAL POWERS)

Q.—How much is the war costing Germany daily?

A.—It was said early in 1917 in a cable from England that it had been officially announced that the daily expenditure of Germany on the war was $25,000,000.

It was announced in the Reichstag on March 16, 1916, that the cost of the last months of 1915 was two milliards of marks monthly—that is, $476,400,000. That would make the daily expenditure just about $15,920,000. The Minister said further that during January and February the cost had been less; that in spite of the immense shell and gun production, and increased cost of raw materials, the expenditure in January, 1916, was just about the same as in January, 1915.

On the basis of the official American estimates for the three years up to August 1, 1917, the daily cost for the German Empire, after America entered the war, would figure out $18,036,529.

Q.—What does the war cost Austria-Hungary daily?

A.—The daily cost of the war to Austria-Hungary was closely figured at $8,858,447.

Q.—What loans has Germany floated?

A.—Up to March 1, 1918, Germany had floated seven loans, all at 5 per cent. The amounts obtained were as follow:—

First loan	$1,120,000,000
Second loan	2,275,750,000
Third loan	3,040,000,000
Fourth loan	2,690,000,000
Fifth loan	2,875,000,000
Sixth loan	3,190,000,000
Seventh loan	3,125,000,000
Total	$18,315,750,000

Q.—Do Bulgaria and Turkey spend much per day?

A.—Yes. They spend (combined) about $1,325,000.

Q.—What was the German financial policy for war?

A.—A famous British banker said in February, 1918, that two decisions were apparently reached: First, to raise all the paper money required, regardless of inflation, through the Reichsbank, and, in case this proved insufficient, through the loan banks; and second, to leave all arrangements for rectifying the finances until after the war.

Q.—How did Germany's war finance plan work?

A.—A financial expert said in 1918:

"In December, 1917, there were, roundly, $1,868,300,000 of the Darlehnskassen notes outstanding, and the Reichsbank had $317,000,000 worth of them. The total issues of paper money in Germany, including Reichsbank notes, Imperial Treasury notes, notes of other banks, and, since established, Darlehnskassen notes was as follows at different dates: December, 1913, $700,000,000; December, 1914, $1,629,000,000; December, 1915, $2,377,000,000; December, 1916, $2,912,000,000; December, 1917, $4,783,000,000. The Reichsbank's own notes outstanding, $459,500,000 on July 23, 1914, were $2,787,000,000 on December 31, 1917. (These figures are a little larger than as they figure in German money.)

"These notes go out into the hands of the public and to a large extent find themselves on deposit with the joint-stock banks, where they form the base for the extension of further credits by the joint-stock banks. Hence the deposits of the banking institutions in Germany have increased to a very large extent, and it is estimated that the total increase since the beginning of the war amounts to the equivalent of about £1,000,000,000 (about $5,000,000,000). We see the same thing happening in England, in America, and in other countries."

Q.—What was the German National Bank Law before war?

A.—Under the law before the war the Reichsbank could (and still can) create credit balances without any limit other than financial expediency fixes, but the note issues for public circulation were limited to three times the cash balance on hand, covered one-third by cash and two-thirds by discounted bills falling due within three months and bearing (except in special cases of two-name paper) three names. The ordinary Government Treasury bill was not then a legal bill of exchange for purposes of covering note issues.

Q.—What new German Bank Laws were passed during war?

A.—Immediately upon the outbreak of the war, on Aug. 4, 1914, the German law was changed in two important particulars to permit of the expansion of credit and circulation. It was made legal for the Reichsbank to accept Treasury bills with two official signatures as "bills of exchange." The Government also revived by law a system of special "loan banks," or Darlehnskassen, used in 1848 and in the Franco-Prussian war. These banks made loans such as ordinary commercial banks are unable to make, a class of "dead loans," to individuals, firms, and municipalities to the extent of 40 to 85 per cent of the value of various securities offered, in the form of special Government notes.

These banks were established for the purpose not only of lightening the burden of the Reichsbank and the joint-stock banks in the necessary credit extensions of the emergency, but the notes issued by them were by law made receivable at the Reichsbank as cash for its necessary one-third cash cover in the issuance of its own notes.

Q.—Has war financing not seriously inflated German currency?

A.—Dr. Havenstein, President of the Reichsbank, recently said that the banks will be continued for four or five years after the war, and will be available for any sort of lending on easy terms. He said further that when peace comes, the holders of war loan will find themselves compelled to convert their holdings into hard cash for raw materials, new machinery, etc., which will throw millions of war loan on the market. The responsible authorities recognize that there will be insufficient buyers, and that the fall in the price would depreciate all securities, so the plan is to form a consortium, consisting of the Reichsbank, the joint-stock banks, and the Darlehnskassen. The Darlehnskassen and, to an extent, the Reichsbank, will provide the capital for the absorption of war loans, and the Reichsbank and branches will take up the stock as it is offered for sale. The stock so absorbed will be gradually redistributed over a number of years through the Reichsbank and the joint-stock banks.

Q.—What was Germany's financial condition in 1918?

A.—It was claimed by British financial papers that in January, 1918, the notes then in circulation in Germany had passed the $4,000,000,000 mark.

The details were given as follows:

	(round numbers)
Reichsbank notes	$2,800,000,000
Treasury notes	87,500,000
Loan notes	1,565,000,000
Total	$4,442,500,000

These figures, it will be noted, are a little lower than others cited by other calculators. The financial war statements of all the nations lend themselves, of course, to all sorts of statements—according to whatever one may want to prove.

Q.—Did the war increase Germany's governmental expenses?

A.—It laid a steadily enlarging burden on all the nations, and Germany had to carry a constantly growing load. It was reported early in 1918 that the ordinary receipts and expenditures of the German budget for 1918 balance at $1,830,000,000, as compared with approximately $1,250,000,000 in the previous year. The increase was said to be due mainly to the higher amount required for interest on the national debt.

Q.—Will American holders of German securities get their money?

A.—Any treaty of peace or the supplementary conventions will foresee and settle all the disputes which may arise from such financial relations.

Q.—What classes paid the most income in Prussia in 1918?

A.—The wealthy classes did, as they were doing everywhere, in so far as actual individual amounts of money were concerned. But the backbone of taxation for income was furnished by the people of small incomes. Thus 54 per cent of the number of taxpayers came from the people with annual incomes from $225 to $750 and the next class (incomes of $750 to $2,375) furnished 19 per cent of the taxpayers.

Q.—Had the general German incomes increased?

A.—Not the general incomes, but there was a large increase among the trades-

people and certain business men and industrials. It was due, no doubt, to war profits, as in the other belligerent countries. Thus the increases of Prussia's taxpayers paying on incomes of $6,000 to $25,000 had jumped by 8 per cent, incomes from $25,000 to $125,000 had increased 27 per cent, those of $125,000 to $250,000 had increased by 40 per cent, and the jump in incomes of more than $250,000 a year was actually 47 per cent.

Q.—Are German war taxes falling heavily on the small people?

A.—The Prussian Kingdom's taxes had begun, by 1917, to reach further than ever before for the small incomes, while increasing for the larger ones. At the end of the third year of the war the actual number of taxpayers in the income classes up to $225 had increased from 36.7 per cent to 37.5 per cent of the whole.

If the incomes above $750 are taken it is found that while the number of taxpayers decreased from 888,000 to 842,000 —that is, by 5 per cent—the total income increased from $1,400,000,000 to $1,900,000,000, or by 7.4 per cent, making an increase in average income for this class of 13.4 per cent.

Q.—How did the German people stand the war financially?

A.—The figures are very confusing because, in the first place, they were given in elaborately "camouflaging" form by German authorities and in the second place they have been re-shaped and restated as they passed through the censorship of Germany's European antagonists. We have, however, a fairly reliable indication of the internal financial condition in a report of the Kingdom of Prussia.

According to the figures, the year 1916, as compared with the year 1914, showed a decrease of 2.2 per cent in the number of individual taxpayers, and a decrease of 5.3 per cent in the number of companies, etc., paying taxes, the latter due, presumably, to the shutting down, for one cause or another, of many concerns. On the other hand, the total income coming under tax had risen from $4,525,000,000 in 1914 to $4,700,000,000 in 1916, making an increase from $605 per capita of population to $625.

Q.—Did very many Germans become rich through the war?

A.—The percentage increases in high annual incomes were surprising, but this did not mean that the increase by individuals was very great.

The number of so-called "millionaires" —that is, people with annual incomes of more than 1,000,000 marks ($230,000)— rose from twenty-seven in 1896 to ninety-one in 1914, and to 134 in 1916 in Prussia alone.

Q.—Did German business increase during the war?

A.—The returns of the Reichsbank for January 7, 1918, showed a total clearing business of the Reichsbank for 1917 of $23,000,000,000, as compared with 16 billions in 1916, 14 billions in 1915, 16 billions in 1914, and 17 billions in 1913, the last complete year of peace. The explanation given by the *Frankfurter Zeitung* for the increase in 1917 was the issue of war loans, combined with increased Stock Exchange business and the decreased purchasing power of money. Further statistics of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* gave the increase in capital by existing companies and the issue of shares by new companies as 33 billions for the first half-year of 1917 and 70 billions for the second half, the main part of the rise in the second half-year being due by the increase in capital of 37 billions in November by anilin concerns.

Q.—Did the Franco-Prussian War cost much?

A.—Comparatively little in money actually spent for war. The Treasury Department's experts figure as follows:

1870-1871	France	$1,580,000,000
	Germany	$954,400,000

Q.—How much did the Franco-Prussian War cost per day?

A.—From the declaration of war to the signing of peace, the war lasted exactly 299 days. For that period (part of which saw no fighting at all), the daily cost to Germany was $3,182,000, and France's daily cost was $5,267,000.

Q.—Did Turkey get much money from Germany?

A.—A German expert, Emil Zimmermann, estimated in May, 1917, that Germany had advanced to Turkey nearly 3,000,000,000 marks ($714,000,000) up to that time.

Q.—What are the details of the Austrian war loans?

A.—The sixth loan was floated in June, 1917. The following sums were obtained by loans:—

	Krone (or Crown)
First loan	2,200,700,000
Second loan	2,688,300,000
Third loan	4,202,600,000
Fourth loan	4,520,300,000
Fifth loan	4,412,800,000
Sixth loan	4,490,000,000
Total	22,924,700,000

At the pre-war rate of exchange (20.26 cents American to the Krone) this would represent $5,644,544,220. The first and second loans were both for short terms, viz., five and ten years respectively. The third was for fifteen years, and the fourth, fifth and sixth for longer periods. All were issued at 5 per cent.

Q.—Does the Austrian Empire raise an Imperial Loan?

A.—Separate loans are raised by the Kingdoms of Austria and Hungary, which finance themselves independently of each other. Hungary has raised several loans, the first two bringing in a little more than $450,000,000.

Q.—How did the Austro-Hungarian State Bank help to finance the war?

A.—The first direct call which was made upon the bank was based upon an agreement of August 14, 1914. The two Governments (Austria and Hungary) took up 2,000,000,000 crowns (at normal exchange the Austro-Hungarian crown is worth $0.2026) against deposit of treasury bills to the amount of 2,666,000,000 crowns, redeemable in gold and bearing interest at 5 per cent. A second agreement (October 7, 1914) allowed the Governments to borrow not more than 2,000,000,000 crowns, and a supplementary agreement of April 12, 1915, placed a further 800,000,000 crowns at their disposal on the same terms.

Q.—Did Austria depend heavily on the State Bank?

A.—It did. In the middle of 1915 the Governments again had recourse to the bank and this made it necessary for the directors to make a general decision on the whole attitude toward Government applications for loans during the war. The only alternative to refusal was to place the note credit of the bank at the disposal of the Governments to an unlimited extent. The directors were not prepared to take the responsibility of a refusal. They gave their consent to the Government applications, on conditions that recourse should be had to the bank only when no other method of obtaining money was practicable.

Ten various agreements have been made at various dates from July 15, 1915, to November 24, 1917, under each of which the Governments have been authorized to borrow 1,500,000,000 crowns against promissory notes, the definite allocation of which is to take place not later than six months after the conclusion of peace. The amount actually borrowed in virtue of these agreements by December 7, 1917, was 13,200,000,000 crowns.

Q.—Did Austria ever make any reports as to internal finances?

A.—The first statement of the Austro-Hungarian State Bank since the outbreak of the war was made on December 7, 1917. It was not complete, but it showed the gold reserve at that date to be $55,000,000, as against $257,800,000 at the end of July, 1914, and note circulation to be $7,375,000,000, as against $433,500,000. This gold reserve was the smallest of any European state bank except those of Norway and Denmark. The note circulation was $2,900,000,000 larger than that of any other bank except the Bank of Russia.

GERMANY (INDUSTRIAL STRUCTURE)

Q.—What was the internal condition of Germany in 1918?

A.—The iron-clad censorship of the German Government has prevented us from knowing as exactly as we should like, and individual reports of travelers are varying or conflicting. Some things, however, are certain. The nation was dangerously divided in its sentiment as to the war. The tremendous traffic from east to west and north to south had put the country's railroads in bad condition, both as to rolling stock and roadbed. There was practically no travel except for government purposes, a prohibitive tax being placed upon passenger tickets for all civilians. No freight or express was accepted except for the Government's use against the enemy. Many raw materials, particularly cotton, were lacking, and people were dying of disease and starvation.

The *Neue Wiener Journal*, of Vienna, stated on December 15, 1917, that in the Austrian capital during 1917, 45,000 people died of all diseases. In comparison, to this there were but 24,000 births. Of the total number of deaths 12,000 were caused by tuberculosis, a disease which was steadily increasing because of the poor food conditions.

Q.—Just how does all Germany compare in size with us?

A.—In size all Germany is not so big as Texas. In fact, Germany could be put into Texas, and there still would be enough of Texas unoccupied to accommodate New York and New Jersey, or Arkansas and Rhode Island, or all of Illinois except a tiny edge.

Or if you want to figure it another way, the United States could take in fifteen German Empires.

Q.—How does German man-power compare with American?

A.—Germany has about 65 per cent of the population we have. (Germany had 65 million people in 1910, and we had an estimated population of 102 million in 1917.) But, comparing the areas of the two countries, the German population is proportionately 14¾ times bigger than ours—or, rather, if the United States were as densely populated, instead of having 102 millions we would have 950 millions, or almost a billion people!

Q.—What was the chief feature of German advance before the war?

A.—The systematic and wholesale application of scientific research to every industrial operation from coal mining to toy-making. Since the Franco-Prussian War, Germany has made industrial science (or scientific industry) the most important part of her whole structure. For more than a generation it has not been the "shop-foreman" or the "superintendent" who played the big part in her industrial establishments. It has been the chemist, the analyst, the "Herr Professor" (of everything from mathematics to astronomy), whose ability guided the great factories and the great operations of commerce.

Q.—With whom did Germany do the biggest business during peace?

A.—In 1913 and 1912 she did her biggest all-round business, counting both exports and imports, with the United States and Russia. Great Britain was a close third. Other countries with which she did a major business were France, Italy, Holland, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Argentina, British India, Australia, Brazil, and Chile. Her trade with British West Africa and Egypt had been very large in 1912, but it had fallen away astonishingly in 1913.

Q.—What does Germany export mostly?

A.—Her exports in 1913 were, in the order of their value: machinery, iron manufactures, coal, cotton goods, woollens, sugar (beet), paper and paper goods, furs, silk goods, coke, aniline dyes, rye, clothing, copper goods, leather goods, toys, wheat, books, rails and sleepers, indigo, chinaware, electric lamps and telegraph cable.

Q.—What does Germany need to import?

A.—In 1913 she imported raw cotton, wheat, raw wool, barley, copper, skins and hides, iron ore, coffee, coal, eggs, furs, nitrate, raw silk, bran, rubber, lard, tobacco, linseed, butter, oil-cake, horses, rice, maize and rye.

Q.—Why do we hear so much of the German dye industry?

A.—Partly because dyes are one of the very big articles of commerce. The ancient city of Tyre, mentioned in the Bible for its grandeur, owed much of its wealth to its dye—the still famous Tyrian purple, which was obtained from a sea-slug. There is hardly an article of manufacture that does not need at least a little color on it somewhere; and the huge textile industries depend on coloring matter as much as they do on the original raw materials of wool and cotton. It is true that if the world came to a sharp pinch, we could use textiles as they come from the looms—but a great part of the world's beauty and its industrial art would vanish with the vanishing of dyes.

Q.—Did Germany have natural sources of dyes?

A.—Germany had within her boundaries practically no natural sources of dyes. Indigo, the leading blue dye of the world, was made from a plant raised in India. Red came largely from the cochineal insect of Mexico and Africa. The other colors came from ores, earths and plants scattered over the world.

Q.—How does Germany produce dyes?

A.—She makes them. Instead of extracting them from plants and color-bearing ores, she makes a wholly artificial thing. The foundation for this artificial dye is coal-tar, and this, again, is a by-product of other industries.

Q.—How did Germany discover the dye-making method?

A.—At about the time of the making of the German Empire, German science had begun to turn itself to industrial problems. While other nations' students still were practicing science as a thing apart from which industry and other fields might profit if they would, the German scientists developed a great and unique field of their own. One of the problems was the utilization of the huge percentage of waste that occurs when coal is used for fuel. That is how the Germans learned so much about coal-tar—the former waste, which now produces everything from drugs and dyes to explosives.

Q.—What is a by-product?

A.—A by-product is a product made "on the side" during a process that is intended primarily to produce something else. Thus, sawdust is a by-product (purely accidental) from sawing planks, etc. Dripping is a by-product from frying bacon. For a long time all the varied by-products of industry were utilized only as they happened—that is, nobody seems to have thought that they might be worth as much as, or perhaps more than, the main product. Even the most advanced industrial men did little except to save all the by-product possible. Hardly anybody went in heavily to expand by-products. To-day, however, we know that the by-product is one of the monumental facts in modern industry, and that in the coming years it may well be possible that no industry, however big and rich, will be able to stand unless it is buttressed all around with a system of intense by-product utilization.

Q.—What was the first great German dye discovery?

A.—It was hardly a discovery, unless you apply the word "discovery" to a work of almost twenty years of patient, incessant search for a certain method to do a certain thing. The first big German dye-discovery or invention was the way to make indigo—that is, to make "synthetically" a dye that, up to that time, had been of purely vegetable origin. One of the big German industrial firms in the southern part of Germany where industry and technical science first began their partnership, had kept not one, but a whole corps of chemists at work on the problem before it was solved. It is recorded that the cost to that concern was $3,750,000 before the way was found; but it paid. The first man to produce a synthetic indigo was Professor von Bayer; but the cost of the product by his process was pretty high, and it was not until other processes were perfected that the dye industry sprang into a magnitude that amazed Germany.

Q.—Did Germany's dye-making affect other nations?

A.—The very first dye that was made by a German struck a sharp blow at England. In a way, it is correct to say that it was the invention of synthetic indigo that laid a foundation for the present war, in so far as the commercial feuds between England and Germany had something to do with the war. The production of synthetic indigo instantly struck and broke down one of England's sources of Indian wealth.

Q.—How did indigo help to cause war?

A.—England, through her ownership of India, had a practical monopoly of the world's supply of this blue, for almost all of it came from immense British plantations in the Indian province of Bengal. In the early part of the nineteenth century the term "indigo planter" was synonymous with "nabob." The British planters in one district alone (North Behar) drew from this plant incomes that aggregated $5,000,000 a year in a country where the laborers' monthly wages were then counted actually by pennies. The area under cultivation throughout Bengal was enormous, and, as the supply of labor was equally unlimited, a golden flood poured in on the planters and into the United Kingdom. To-day the indigo fields have shrunk to 380,000 acres, and the income is only $1,950,000 for all India—a tiny bit more than $5 an acre.

Q.—How is synthetic indigo made?

A.—The starting point is naphthalene. After intricate processes, there is produced a substance known as indigotine. This product again must pass through long chemical processes before the paste or powder is obtained for the market.

Q.—What is natural indigo?

A.—It is a plant that grows from 3 to 5 feet high, doing best in India and Java. Its name is Indigofera Sumatrana. It contains the coloring matter, which is made into the blue dye known as "indigo," and it furnishes two crops a year.

Q.—Was the German dye industry really overwhelmingly important?

A.—The dye monopoly before the war gave Germany an export trade in fine chemicals of $487,500,000. In addition, it gave her a practically complete monopoly in the output of certain explosive gases, photographic chemicals, drugs, and sources of power derived from splitting up petroleum and gas-tar products.

Of the dye values, synthetic indigo seems to represent about 40 per cent by itself—an indication of the importance of this initial success in German by-product extraction.

Q.—What other dyes have Germans discovered?

A.—The most notable was alizarin red, formerly made from the madder root. Two German chemists made it from coal-tar in 1869. This date is of historical interest, for it was the first instance of the artificial production of a vegetable dyestuff. It was an Englishman, however, Sir W. H. Perkin, who prepared the first aniline dye in 1856. He produced a mauve coloring matter, but this was a quite new product and did not replace any vegetable dye. It is interesting to know that the bright red trousers which early in the war made the French so conspicuous a target for German bullets, could no longer be made, as the alizarin dye which was used for them was a German monopoly. Before the Germans succeeded in making it, the dye was a French monopoly, but since then the cultivation of the madder root in France has ceased entirely.

Q.—Has Germany accumulated great stores of dyestuffs?

A.—The British textile journals appear to doubt it, and it is difficult to know the actual position. The former United States Consul at Breslau informed a meeting of the Philadelphia hosiery manufacturers that dyestuffs were one of three commodities which were being held in surplus in Germany. The others were sulphuric acid and Portland cement.

We must remember that the manufacture of explosives is a part of the coal-tar industries of Germany, and that in their thrift they probably are missing no opportunity for storing by-products.

Q.—Did not the "Deutschland" bring us dye during war?

A.—Yes. The submarine freight vessel *Deutschland* brought about 700 tons—an insignificant amount as compared with our annual consumption of about 35,000 tons, but an eagerly welcomed shipment because of the intense stringency in dyes from which America was then suffering. The price paid was so high that it is said the whole cost of the *Deutschland* was defrayed by the profit made from this one trip.

Q.—Did natural indigo get a market again when war occurred?

A.—Apparently it did not recover very much of a place. It was reported in March, 1918, that the natural indigo stock taken over by the British Government at the beginning of war had been sold; and the figures showed that the total for the three years of war had been only 267 tons, which cost the government $1,760,000. It was taken over because it had been

feared that, owing to the inevitable shortage of synthetic indigo, the natural indigo might get into the hands of a small group. One hundred tons were sold to the French Government, and the remainder gradually disposed of to the domestic trade, both for home consumption and for export. The accounts show a profit of $17,300.

Q.—Did the English make synthetic indigo?

A.—The production of synthetic dyestuffs in Great Britain was reported in 1918 as three times as large as before the war, so that prices dropped in 1917.

Q.—Has Germany increased her coal mining?

A.—The coal production of the country—including lignite—rose from 76,200,000 tons in 1887 to 259,400,000 tons in 1912. The gain of 240 per cent is equaled by no other country except the United States.

Q.—Did Germany aid her steel manufacturers?

A.—The steel industry, by sheer virtue of its overwhelming, absolutely vital, necessity to the empire at war, became an object of governmental solicitude as soon as the struggle began. It does not appear that any particular laws were passed to grant government funds to the industry or otherwise to give official financial assistance; but the huge government orders had the same effect.

Just what laws were passed, or what regulations were made, to regulate the relations between the steel industries and the public is not clear. So far as labor is concerned, it is known that in the first three years of the war the German iron and steel industry subscribed about 350 millions of marks ($83,000,000) to relief work.

Q.—Have steel-workers' wages advanced?

A.—That wages have been advanced heavily is known. Government action in regard to wages, which affected many industries, appears to have affected the steel industry most heavily, perhaps because of the big number of men they employed. The steel manufacturers have expressed the view several times at conferences that wages had advanced to a point where they would handicap Germany's price-competition with other nations after war. On the other hand, the steel-makers' profits have been enormous (as in every country), and, in addition, the war-profits tax has been lighter than it has been in Great Britain.

Q.—Has Germany built more railroads than other nations?

A.—Not in mileage, as compared with the United States, but in proportion she did nearly what we did from 1890 to 1910. In that period we increased our railroad mileage 44 per cent, and Germany increased her mileage 42 per cent.

Q.—What does Germany save by her economies and scientific thrift?

A.—One could only guess. Not even the German statisticians, meticulous as they are, have ventured to attempt any specific figures. But we know, in large figures, how coal and by-products are wasted by the other large industrial nations, and we know that a large percentage of such waste has been eliminated in Germany. This alone enables us to make a large general estimate that the German industrial economies amount to probably more than a thousand million dollars a year. Lord Haldane once said, in a speech on England's technical needs, that if English technicians would devote themselves to economies similar to the German, their work would save the United Kingdom at least 2½ billions of dollars a year—and Lord Haldane is not an ordinary orator, but a speaker of scientific precision.

Q.—How do the Germans keep their economical processes secret?

A.—They do not—that is the most extraordinary part of the story of their competition with other nations. Of course, they have thousands on thousands of trade-secrets—patents, etc., like the rest of us. But their big industrial economies, such as the utilizations of coal and coke, the extraction of every possible by-product, the attainment of the utmost values from ore, etc., are not secrets at all. The whole world knows exactly what they are, or almost exactly. In fact, every technical expert in the world has for years subscribed, as a matter of course, to German technical publications if he meant seriously to keep himself posted thoroughly in his own field. The German and the French technical publications have run a close race in excellence for many years. A great part of the world's knowl-

edge would be non-existent except for them. Indeed, a big part of the scientific news that comes to the English and American public is based on previous publications in the technical press of these two nations.

Q.—Then why did other nations not use these economies?

A.—For very many reasons. One was the human opposition to great and sudden changes. Another was the fact that the German industries, being largely new, were started right, while the industries of older nations were reared on older foundations—and it was no light task to reform, remodel or perhaps destroy and reconstruct these mammoth industrial organizations and plants. For instance, our steel industry is based on a method entirely different from that of the Germans. It is true that by their method they get not only steel, but they get coke and all its innumerable by-products from explosives to saccharine. But to rebuild our enormous steel industry would entail such huge losses that all the profits to be made could not repay them for many, many years. Naturally, business men do not feel like undertaking such tasks, but prefer to go on as they are. The war, however, has made some of the very great changes actually inevitable, and it is a cheering thing to know that at least part of the American billions is going into the construction of just such industrial plants as Germany has.

Q.—Did German ammunition manufacturers profit or lose during war?

A.—The Krupp company reported for the fiscal year 1917 gross profits of $28,725,000, against $28,340,000 in 1916, and $32,065,000 in 1915. Net profit was $10,245,000, against $12,415,000 and $21,615,000 in the two preceding years, and the dividend 10 per cent, against 12 in the three preceding years, and 14 in 1913. The trebling of tax payments since 1915 caused the heavy drop in net receipts.

Q.—Are the Krupp works near the Rhine?

A.—Yes. The city of Essen, which is largely Krupp, is on the Rhine toward the Dutch border. The Rhine-Ruhr district, where this city is situated, is one of the world's most remarkable manufacturing districts. Within a few miles of each other are the large cities of Essen (with the Krupp gun works), Elberfield-Barmen, Düsseldorf, Duisburg, Dortmund, Remscheid and Mülheim. While iron is the principal industry, scarcely anything can be named which is not made within this twenty-five mile radius.

Q.—What are Germany's other industrial centers?

A.—The other great manufacturing districts are in Bavaria, which is famous for its toys, and Saxony for its iron furnaces. The finest coal fields are in Lorraine, along the river Ruhr, and in Silesia.

Q.—How and when did Germany become an iron producer?

A.—She first became powerful as a factor in the iron industry by her application of new and revolutionary principles to the smelting ovens. At the same time she so improved her capacity that instead of exporting iron ore she had to buy it.

The excess of iron ore exports of more than 700,000 tons for 1887 was converted by 1912 into an excess of imports by nearly 10,000,000 tons. During the same period pig-iron production rose from 4,024,000 to 17,853,000 tons. From 1886 to 1910, Germany increased its steel production 1,335 per cent, the United States 910 per cent and England 154 per cent.

Q.—Did the Germans find supplies in Northern France worth $2,000,000,000?

A.—It is impossible to tell. That is the figure the Germans published. Whether it is correct or not has not been stated by the Belgian and French authorities. It is admitted that vast stores of cotton and woollen goods, raw cotton and wool, and so forth, were left undestroyed in the hasty retirement to the Marne, in the great industrial districts about Lille.

Q.—Have the Germans found substitutes for wool and cotton?

A.—They claim to have done so. Apparently, they must be using something, as all supplies of cotton they can get from Asia Minor would certainly be used in the making of explosives, and although they will, no doubt, have obtained considerable quantities of wool from Bulgaria and Turkey, these countries could have sent them only a minimum of the amount of wool they formerly obtained from abroad.

One plant from which a fiber is obtained, which is being used by spinners and weavers in Germany instead of cot-

ton, wool and jute, is called the typha, and is a sort of cat-tail that grows extensively in marshes. The 1916 crop was estimated as high as six million tons, and the yield of the finished product is 10 per cent of this. Leading German merchants and bankers have subscribed capital for the manufacture of the new cloth. One favorable quality of the typha is that it flourishes on land too poor for the growing of cereal crops. It can be harvested from June until the frosts come.

Q.—Could an Australian wool embargo strangle the German textile industry?

A.—Plenty of wool is obtainable from other countries. Even merino can be got from Uruguay in large quantities. The following list of the wool production of the countries then neutral was prepared by American experts, and published in Boston in 1914:

	Lbs.
Europe—	
Spain	52,000,000
Greece	14,000,000
Asia—	
China	50,000,000
Persia	12,000,000
America—	
United States	296,000,000
Mexico	7,000,000
Argentine	326,000,000
Uruguay	157,000,000
Chile	29,000,000
Peru	10,000,000
Central America and Brazil	2,000,000
Total	955,000,000

The Central Powers, Bulgaria and Turkey, together produce 248,000,000 lbs. The Australian production in 1914-15 was 642,000,000 lbs.

Q.—Can the Germans really make synthetic rubber?

A.—It is not impossible. Every chemist knows that synthetic rubber can be made. The chief trouble about it is that it costs more than natural rubber. In Germany's war-emergency, that objection may have become minor.

Rubber is merely the sap of a certain kind of tree. One way known to make synthetic rubber is from starch, best obtained from potatoes, but it requires a lot.

An annual production of 10,000,000 pounds of rubber might require 500,000,000 pounds of potatoes. The starch is converted into acetone and butyl alcohol.

A process known to have been at least partially developed by a German company is based on the use of acetone. This is obtainable from calcium carbide, which is very cheap, indeed.

Q.—When did Germany become a big machinery maker?

A.—She began to make strides about 1882. The number of persons employed in the machine industry increased 229 per cent from 1882 till 1907, and more than 100 per cent was recorded in mining and smelting, earths and stone, chemicals, paper, printing, and building. From 1895-1907 only four industries—textiles, woodworking, foods and beverages, and printing—failed to increase their power more than 100 per cent, while the building trade gained 308 and machinery 557 per cent, and other industries between 100 and 200 per cent.

Q.—Is it true that Germany has no real seaports?

A.—She has no great port directly on the sea. Hamburg (with maritime business ranking next only to New York, Liverpool and London) and Bremen, with their outlying stations of Wilhelmshaven, Bremerhaven and Cuxhaven, are the only ports west of the peninsula of Schleswig-Holstein, and so accessible to large transatlantic traffic, and these are both some distance from the sea, Hamburg being on the river Elbe and Bremen on the river Weser.

Q.—Can Germany not reach the sea through the Rhine?

A.—To use her great river, the Rhine, Germany must go through Holland (where the name changes to the Waal) to reach the North Sea. Much of her shipping is done through the foreign ports of Antwerp and Amsterdam.

But where nature has denied them, the Germans have supplied the want by ingenuity. The Rhine has been dredged one hundred and fifty miles from its mouth for navigation by vessels of fair sea-going capacity. The whole of Germany is cut by a network of canals, the most famous of which is the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal from Kiel on the Baltic to Brunsbüttel at the mouth of the Elbe on the North Sea.

Q.—How did Germany's marine grow?

A.—In the 25 years from 1888 to 1913, Germany's merchant marine grew from

470,000 net registered tonnage to 2,655,000. Her import trade grew from 740 million (dollars) to 2 billion 610 million, and her exports grew from 747 million to 2 billion 165 million. Germany's total foreign trade gained 214 per cent, against 173 per cent gained by the United States, 113 per cent by Great Britain, and 98 per cent by France.

Q.—Was the German marine entirely prostrated by the war?

A.—Practically so. There remained, however, a pretty lively sea-trade through the Baltic with Sweden, and the war-profits of the ships so engaged were high. Thus, at an auction sale in Rostock, a German Baltic port, a steamship was sold in 1917 for $637,500. Its cost when built in 1908 had been $122,500. Its earnings during 1912 had been 12 per cent, and during 1913 14 per cent. In 1914 it earned nothing. In 1915 it earned 5 per cent. In 1916 its earnings were 60 per cent.

Q.—Did the Germans recover their merchant vessels in Antwerp?

A.—Yes. When the war began, 37 German vessels were lying in Antwerp, and, of course, could not get out. It has been one of the mysteries of the war why either the Belgians or the British did not remove these ships. It may be that they delayed because of possible complications with Holland, since to send the ships to England would have made necessary passage through the Dutch-controlled mouth of the Scheldt. At any rate, the ships were left in Antwerp, and when the Germans captured the city they thus recaptured their ships.

Q.—Are the German cities as large as ours?

A.—Germany has no cities as large as New York and Chicago in population, but Berlin, with 2 millions, has a population exceeded in America only by those two big cities. Of cities with more than 300,000 people, we have 18, while Germany has 11. Of cities with less than 300,000 and more than 100,000, we have 46, against Germany's 31. When it comes to cities next in rank of more than 50,000, we have 51 against Germany's 38.

Q.—What are the big cities of Germany?

A.—Berlin, Hamburg, Munich, Leipzig, Dresden, Cologne, Breslau, Frankfort, Düsseldorf, Nuremberg, Charlottenburg and Hanover are the cities with more than 300,000 people.

Q.—Are most of the big cities in Prussia?

A.—Of the 12 largest cities, 7 are in Prussia. The others are in Saxony and Bavaria. Of the whole list of German cities ranking over 50,000, Prussia has 53 as against 32 in the rest of Germany.

Q.—Did Germany get oil from Roumania?

A.—In the months of September to December, 1916, German armies conquered a part of Roumania, and occupied the city of Ploechti in the Prahova Valley, the center of one of the richest oil-fields in Europe. The oil-wells, however, were burned, and the oil-reservoirs destroyed. From time to time neutral newspapers have reported the restoration of the Roumanian oil industry to normal conditions.

Q.—How much oil might Germany get from Roumania's wells?

A.—In 1913 Roumania exported petroleum and so forth, to the value of 26 million dollars. It is known, however, that while some of the wells were worked with thorough science and with the best of modern machinery, a large part of the possible oil-territory remained undeveloped or practically so.

Q.—How much oil might Germany get from Batoum and the other Black Sea regions?

A.—The Baku district alone produced 7 million tons of oil in 1915, the last year for which there have been accurate figures.

Q.—Has Germany much forest land?

A.—Germany has an amazing area of forest land, considering the density of her population. The whole forest area is reckoned at 34½ million acres, divided into government forests, communal forests, private forests and forests maintained by societies. It is a tiny amount compared with the 550 million acres of American forest; but Germany manages to get a big income from her small area, to cut it freely and still conserve it and even improve it. Intensive forestry is the secret.

Q.—Have many Germans emigrated lately?

A.—Hardly any. The flood of German emigration, very great at one time, stopped with extraordinary abruptness. In the last few years it has fallen away to almost nothing, and even the small emigration that there was showed a steady diminution annually. In 1913, the year before the war, only 26,000 people emigrated from all Germany.

Q.—Where did most of the emigrants go from?

A.—The largest number went from Prussia, which lost 13,000 people. Bavaria lost only 2,000.

Q.—How many left Alsace-Lorraine?

A.—Only 517 emigrated from that province.

Q.—When did German emigration decrease?

A.—In the decade 1881-90, there were 1,342,000 German emigrants, as against a total birth excess of 5,500,000; in the following decade there were still 528,000 emigrants to 7,300,000 net births; but in the decade 1901-10, when the birth excess rose to 8,670,000 the number of emigrants sank to 220,000, or 22,000 a year.

Q.—Who said German technical schools were more dangerous than Krupp?

A.—You evidently refer to a statement once made in the House of Lords by Lord Haldane. He did not phrase it exactly that way. He was discussing English educational systems, and, during the course of his speech, he said that while there were only 1,500 trained chemists in England, four German chemical firms employed 1,000 alone. These firms had played havoc with British trade, he said, and added that more than half the boys and girls in England get no education at all after they reach 13, and only 250,000 go to school after 14 years of age. Lord Haldane said that 5,350,000 boys and girls in England and Wales between 16 and 25 get no education at all, only 93,000 get a full-time course, and 390,000 a part-time course at evening schools.

Q.—Did Germany pay her war costs by taxation?

A.—Germany has raised little money in the way of additional war-taxes. Instead, she has floated two huge loans each year, one in March and one in September. It is now recognized that nations consume in war not money but goods, and that no nation need stop fighting for financial reasons alone. Germany's real impoverishment is in her shortage of men and of goods.

GERMANY (POLITICAL STRUCTURE)

Q.—What was the political situation in Germany in 1918?

A.—It was fairly clear and rather sharply outlined. The Pan-Germanists, working largely through their new popular party, to which they had shrewdly given the enticing name of Fatherland party, were working on the line of demanding that the German people must be repaid for their sacrifice of blood and treasure—the good old formula that had been almost invariably successful throughout the history of humanity when addressed to the nation whose military power had proved itself. Opposed to this very solid mass were many parties. They were tied together by the one desire for a just and equitable peace, but, otherwise, they had little or no connecting bonds. For instance, the Socialists, who led in opposition to the Pan-Germanists, remained distinctly opposed in all general political and social matters to the various other parties that were in agreement with them on the big war-issues, especially on the dictum of "no annexations."

Q.—Was there any similar division in other countries?

A.—Yes. Speaking very broadly, by the beginning of 1918 there had come a pretty clear division in all countries, both Allies and Central Powers, between a great body of public opinion that still felt that only by successful war could a just and lasting peace be won, and another smaller body of public opinion which took a position exactly the reverse—that the time had arrived when there was a strong possibility of approximating a just peace, and establishing certain international ideals, by negotiation rather than by military victory.

Q.—Can the Kaiser make war?

A.—He cannot declare an offensive war, but a clause in the constitution provides that he can declare war if defensive. If war is not defensive, he must have the consent of the Bundesrath, or Federal Council, which is the upper house of the German Parliament. Under the Constitution the Kaiser can make treaties of peace. He does not need the consent of the Parliament for any treaties except when they relate to matters regulated by imperial legislation.

Q.—How did Prussia become militaristic?

A.—As a result of being licked too often. Prussia (and the other States of Germany) were for a long time used as a cock-pit for other peoples' wars, just as the Belgian territory always has been used. Whenever France wanted to fight Russia or Austria, the road led through Württemberg, Bavaria or Prussia. The German States were alternately victims of both sides or allies of one or the other. Some of the greatest battles of history thus were fought out on German territory. At last Prussians determined grimly to fight for themselves, and it was under the inspiration of a burning zeal and love for home and country that the seeds of militarism were sown. Under Frederick the Great the militaristic principle became part of the woof and warp of national life.

Q.—Can the President of the United States make treaties?

A.—No. He can make treaties only "by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." It is this simple clause which has saved us from being embroiled in secret diplomacy. The European nations (not excepting even democratic England) have suffered grievously by permitting their rulers or cabinets to make international arrangements without the knowledge or advice of the people's representatives.

Q.—What is the true meaning of the Kaiser's title "War Lord"?

A.—In German, the title is "Kriegs-Herr," and "War Lord" is only a literal translation that does not actually convey its meaning. The more clear translation is "War Commander." The title signifies officially that whoever is Emperor of Germany becomes by virtue of this office Supreme Commander of the Army and Navy in war.

Probably few Americans know that this supreme command is limited by the words "in war," but this is true. The Kaiser has not the absolute command over the forces of the entire German Army. Article 66 of the German Constitution provides that the German princes, especially the kings of Bavaria, Württemberg and Saxony, are the chiefs of the troops be-

longing to their territory (six army corps of twenty-four). They nominate the officers for these troops, etc. The absolute disposition of the German Army thus passes on to the Kaiser only in the moment when the consent of the states, who with Prussia form the empire, has been obtained for the declaration of a war.

This consent is obtained through the German Upper House or Bundesrath, which represents the various States.

Q.—What is the German people's attitude toward the Kaiser?

A.—With the exception of the most radical socialists, the German people hold their Kaiser in the highest esteem. It is this attitude which has caused the German people to bear, with such wonderful patience, whatever burden the war has brought.

Q.—Has Germany a constitution?

A.—Yes. It has a written constitution, which is, on the whole, similar to the constitution of most large nations, defining and limiting the powers of the Government and directing the general method of making laws and enforcing laws. It went into effect on April 16, 1871.

Q.—Can anybody but a Hohenzollern become Emperor?

A.—Not under the terms of the Confederation. When Wilhelm I, King of Prussia, was made German Emperor (by vote of the old North German Confederation Reichstag, on the initiative of all the Princes of Germany), the Imperial dignity was made hereditary in the House of Hohenzollern, and, as the law of primogeniture also holds, it means that when a Hohenzollern dies, his eldest living son ascends the Imperial throne.

Q.—Does the old North German Federation still exist?

A.—No. This very loose and not effective form of federation was replaced by the present confederation known as the German Empire. Germany as a nation is quite different, you must note, from such a country as France. France is one single governmental organization. Germany is a union of States.

Q.—Have the Germans free suffrage like other countries?

A.—The national elections are by absolutely universal manhood suffrage with the secret ballot system, and no voter needs any qualification of property, etc., but is entitled to cast his ballot if he is a citizen of legal age.

The State elections are different. Each State has its own laws for elections within the State. Prussian election laws are especially unequal, and this was the subject of a bitter political contest during the war, and, indeed, became an issue of the war.

Q.—What suffrage have the other countries?

A.—The United States has practically equal suffrage, except in a few States where suffrage is limited in various ways, chiefly for political reasons. France has universal suffrage. Italy has almost universal suffrage, but the people can elect only the members of the lower house, the Senate consisting of Princes or of members appointed by the King for life.

Great Britain, in February, 1918, enacted a new suffrage law, which swept away the qualifications previously in force, and provided universal manhood suffrage, besides a new scheme of distribution on the basis of one member of Parliament for every 70,000 of the population in Great Britain, and one for every 43,000 in Ireland. It also admitted to the suffrage any woman of thirty years or over who is a local government elector or the wife of one (this involves six months' ownership or tenancy of land or premises), thus giving the vote to about 6,000,000 women.

Q.—Do the Germans elect any of their actual ruling heads?

A.—No. The Germans elect the members of their Reichstag, but the Chancellor of the German Empire, who corresponds to Prime Minister in England, is appointed by the Emperor, and is not responsible by law to the Reichstag.

Q.—What nations in the war elect their ruling heads?

A.—Only the United States. The British Prime Minister is appointed by the King (though, in actual practice, the ruling majority in Parliament makes up its mind whom it wants, and the King has always appointed that particular person). The President of France is elected by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. He has very little power, and the real ruler, the Premier, though appointed by the President, really is appointed only according to the wishes of the party in power at a given moment. In Italy the Ministry is appointed by the King, usually in accord with the ruling majority.

Q.—Is the German Parliament at all like the U. S. Congress?

A.—In some ways it is like Congress. For instance, the Reichstag (which is the lower house or the House of Representatives, as we call ours) is made up of elected members who come from the various districts of Germany, where they are locally elected as our Congressmen are.

The Bundesrath or Upper House, on the other hand, represents not the people of Germany, but the States specifically, as our Senate was supposed to do when United States Senators were selected by State Legislatures instead of being elected by popular suffrage. In fact, our Senators still represent States rather than electors, in political principle at least.

Q.—How does the size of the German Parliament compare with others?

A.—The Bundesrath, or Upper House, has 61 members, as against 96 United States Senators and 660 Peers in the British House of Lords. The Reichstag has 393 members, elected by popular suffrage, against 435 Congressmen and 670 members in the House of Commons.

Q.—Can the Kaiser dissolve the Reichstag?

A.—Yes. He has the right either to "prorogue" it (that means to close its session temporarily) or to dissolve it entirely. All that he needs is a majority vote of the Bundesrath. But he cannot prorogue the Reichstag indefinitely, and he cannot go on without a Reichstag. If he prorogues the Reichstag, it can be for only a period of 30 days, unless the Reichstag itself consents to a longer period. If he dissolves a Reichstag, new elections must be held within sixty days, and a new session must be held within ninety days.

Q.—Can the President prorogue Congress?

A.—No. He can neither prorogue nor dissolve it. Congress is a co-equal body with the American President, and its rights are clearly defined as such in the constitution.

Q.—How do the upper houses compare?

A.—The 61 members of the Bundesrath are appointive, the governments of the various German States appointing the members for each session. Our 96 Senators are elected by popular suffrage for six years. The 660 Peers in the House of Lords hold their seats by hereditary right, by creation of new Peers by the King, and by virtue of office as English archbishops and bishops.

Q.—Can the King of England prorogue Parliament?

A.—Yes. Every session of Parliament must end with a prorogation which issues from the King. He can also dissolve a Parliament, but no King in modern times has done so on his own authority. What the King does about Parliament is purely a matter of form. In actual fact, Parliament is prorogued when the majority party decides to do so, and it is dissolved when the majority party's Cabinet has been outvoted in Parliament on some national measure. An adverse vote (a vote of lack of confidence, as it is called) results by custom in a general election to bring in a new Parliament. As a matter of strict law, a Cabinet could hold out; but it could get no measures passed, and it would antagonize the voters by flouting British custom, which is stronger than written law. The British Constitution really is largely a matter of National custom; and the King acts accordingly, proroguing or dissolving Parliament by advice of the Cabinet.

Q.—If the Reichstag refuses to pass the Kaiser's measures, what can he do?

A.—He can dissolve Parliament, and thus cause another election. If the new body again refuse to approve of his legislation, he can again dissolve Parliament, and a second election would be held. Such a case has never arisen to date, but it is not impossible. The Emperor can declare war without the consent of the Lower House, just as can the King of England; but, owing to the fact that the Ministers are all his nominees, he has a very great influence over German politics while the King of England has very little over British politics in practice, though a forceful English King might assume many prerogatives and powers that have been allowed to become dormant merely as a matter of custom.

Q.—Can the King of England control the House of Lords?

A.—He can create a majority for himself in the House of Lords at any time

by exercising his constitutional prerogative of creating new Peers. He could create so many that they could overcome a vote against the Crown. This power, like other powers latent under English political practice, had fallen into such oblivion that probably most Englishmen considered it practically dead; but it suddenly came to life when the House of Commons made its great fight in 1910-11 to wrest the power of veto from the House of Lords. To force the House of Lords to relinquish this power, the Cabinet then in office threatened that the King would appoint enough Peers to vote for the measure. The threat was enough. It was not necessary to proceed to its execution. The incident showed what great powers still rest in the Crown—if the Crown should ever venture to use them.

Q.—Does the King of England not create new Peers yearly?

A.—Yes. It is a regular part of English political practice; but the Peers that are created are not created primarily for voting purposes in the House of Lords. They are created for political reasons largely, it is true; but the reasons are indirect.

Q.—What entitles Englishmen to peerage?

A.—Theoretically, peerages are bestowed for distinguished service, and a great many Peerages are thus granted. Many, however, are granted for services that are "distinguished" only in the sense that they are valuable to the party in power. The very common English practice of rewarding large contributors to political funds with peerages has been, and remains, a target for bitter attack in the House of Commons.

Q.—Is the House of Lords wholly powerless to veto bills now?

A.—It has lost its most imminent power, that of refusing its consent to revenue bills ("money bills" as the British term them) passed by the House of Commons. A money bill passed by the House may become a law without the concurrence of the House of Lords, if the King assents to it. Other bills, however, can override a House of Lords veto only by being passed by the House of Commons three times. If the Lords refuse each time to pass it, it becomes a law without their assent, if the Crown approves. It will be seen that this method still leaves considerable power of veto in the House of Lords. It would be extremely difficult to pass a bill three times through the House of Commons, especially as two years must elapse by law between the first passage and the third passage.

Q.—Have the Germans a system of second ballots?

A.—Yes. Unlike Great Britain or the United States, they have a system for the Reichstag elections, by which, if absolute majority is not obtained by one candidate over all the others who are contesting the election, a second ballot is taken between the two candidates who have received the greatest number of votes.

Q.—What is the German Reichstag representation?

A.—Each member represents about 130,000 inhabitants. This compares roughly with our Congress, each Congressman representing about 200,000 people now. The members of the British House of Commons represented counties and boroughs, many of widely differing areas and populations until the passage of the new law above referred to; and there are also 9 university members elected by the universities.

Q.—How is the Bundesrath apportioned?

A.—Prussia appoints the largest number of members—16. Bavaria appoints the next larger number—6. Saxony and Württemberg each appoint 4. Baden and Hesse each appoint 3. Mecklenburg-Schwerin appoints 3. The other States appoint 1 each. Thus, no one State has a majority; but it is claimed that Prussia, partly by having 16 votes to begin with, and partly by controlling many other votes, can always control the 61 members of the Bundesrath.

Q.—How many States are in the German Empire?

A.—There are 26 States, some being Kingdoms, some Duchies and Principalities, and others Republics, known as Free Towns.

Q.—Are there really republics in Germany?

A.—Yes. There are three little, but powerful, republics—the three free towns or cities of Lübeck, Bremen and Hamburg, each of which proudly calls itself Freie or Hansestadt (Free or Hanseatic

City). The freedom of these independent cities really dates back centuries to the Hanseatic League, but they are under modern constitutions, adopted in 1848 and 1849, and often revised to make them highly up-to-date.

Q.—Do these German republics really rule themselves?

A.—They are exactly as independent and powerful in their own right as are the big Kingdoms of Germany. They are ruled by Senates elected for life and by big bodies of burgesses, elected by all the citizens for terms of years ranging from four to six. Lübeck has 120 burgesses, Hamburg has 160, and Bremen has 140. The head of the Republic is Burgermeister (Mayor), who is elected by the citizens. Bremen has two burgermeisters, elected at the same time, and governing together for four years. Hamburg has two, a first and a second. Lübeck contents herself with one.

Q.—Are the republics important in the empire?

A.—Bremen and Hamburg are the two shipping ports of the empire. Through them flows the commerce of the nation, and the 1½ millions of citizens are among the richest and most influential in the country, wielding an enormous political and financial power. The great German steamship lines are owned directly by Bremen and Hamburg men. Both ports count their shipping by the million tons, and Hamburg has often been described as the most advanced and elaborate port in the world.

Q.—Have all the German States Parliaments of their own?

A.—All have separate representative assemblies, except Alsace-Lorraine and the two grand duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz. Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Württemberg, Baden and Hesse have the two-chamber system. The smaller States have one House only. The smallest principality, that of Schaumburg-Lippe, has only 15 members, Brunswick, the largest of the smaller States, has a chamber of 48 members.

Q.—Just what is a "Junker"?

A.—It is a term that dates back to feudal times, when it meant a junior nobleman, a "young Herr." That meaning, of course, has long since disappeared, with the English term "squire," which meant practically the same thing, a "squire" being one of gentle blood who had not yet been made knight. To-day, while the term "Junker" may be applied to any member of a hereditary nobility, it is directly applied to the firmly conservative and aristocratic land-holders. Because these men represent most drastically the undemocratic, privileged classes, the term "Junker" has come to signify almost a political party in Germany. It is used by the liberal opposition as a term of satire and reproach, and in its slang use it has come to be applied to any swaggering, haughty fellow. It is used mostly as referring to Prussians.

Q.—Is it only politics that give Prussia her big place in Germany?

A.—No. Prussia is the "hustler" of Germany. Before the Franco-Prussian War, the various German States were very easy-going, both politically and socially. They were content with a loose national federation that left them a ready prey to any other nation. They had done little to develop commerce or manufactures. Their science was excellent, but it was limited largely to the laboratory or the university. It was the crude but intensely alive Prussian who gave all the latent German powers their vitalizing impetus. Prussia made an iron whole out of the many widely varying State armies. Prussia flung railroads through the empire.

Q.—Do the other States like Prussia?

A.—Perhaps it is a good deal like the attitude of our smaller States toward the bigger ones. As a rule, the general interests of all are so closely knit with the Federation, that they do not raise the issue of Prussian hegemony. But whenever there arise questions with sharply defined State interests, there is always a very positive opposition to the big State. The most decided jealousy exists between Prussia and Bavaria, the latter State being extremely insistent on its rights and dignity.

Q.—Are the Prussians like the other Germans?

A.—They are very unlike the rest. It is essentially the Prussian of the flat north country who has given the world the idea that the Germans are all a very blond type, with light blue eyes and fea-

tures that, on the whole, express a strenuous and not particularly amiable character. As a matter of fact, while the Germans, like all the Germanic races, including the English, are, as a race, fair and blue-eyed, the great mass of Germany, to the south of Prussia, is far darker than the Prussians or the "Platt-Deutsche," as the other Germans call the northernmost Prussians. The Bavarians' hair and beards incline to a golden brown. The Württembergers are extremely dark—brunette, and even black-haired, looking rather Spanish in many cases. There really is a far greater difference between the northern and southern Germans than there is between our northerners and southerners.

Q.—Do the southern Germans hate the Prussians?

A.—No. They do not. But there has always been a very general feeling of intellectual disdain for the Prussian. His marked material abilities were recognized, though not always admired, and his faults also were recognized and pretty sharply characterized. He was accounted crude and sordid by the idealistic and romantic southern Germans. Indeed, it is not at all far-fetched to say that the attitude of the South German toward the North German Prussian is much like the old-time attitude of the American southerner toward the northerner, with the difference that all the German dislikes are subordinate to the mighty passion for maintaining national unity.

Q.—How is Prussia governed?

A.—The State government of Prussia is by a House of Representatives (Landtag), consisting of two chambers, the upper being known as "Herrenhaus" (House of Lords), and the lower as Chamber of Deputies. The King, as executive head of the Government, is assisted by a council of ministers whom he himself appoints.

Q.—Are Ministers in Prussia responsible to Parliament?

A.—No. They are appointed by the Crown, and are not necessarily members of either House, although they have the right to speak in either of them whenever they so desire. But they may not vote. They are not responsible to Parliament for their actions, but are indirectly curbed by the fact that no laws can be passed without the consent of both Houses of Parliament. The members of Parliament have control of the finances, and can vote or refuse taxes. The King can, if he wishes, originate legislation, but it must be introduced into the Landtag by a responsible Minister.

Q.—Is the Prussian Herrenhaus like the British House of Lords?

A.—Somewhat. But while the British House of Lords is almost wholly hereditary, the Prussian House of Lords is partly appointive. The members of the Prussian body are: (1) royal Princes; (2) 50 heads of territorial nobility; (3) a number of life-peers chosen by the King from land-owners, manufacturers and "national celebrities"; (4) eight noblemen elected by land-owners of all degrees; (5) representatives of universities, heads of university chapters and burgomasters of towns with more than 50,000 population; (6) an unlimited number of members nominated by the King.

Q.—How does the actual membership of the two Houses of Lords compare?

	Herrenhaus.	House of Lords
Agriculture	48	..
Commerce and industry	48	..
Trade	12	..
Labor	24	..
Education	16	..
Clergy	17	26
Municipalities	36	..
Rural communities	36	..
Land-owners	24	..
Mayors of large towns	20	..
Appointed by the King	94	..
Princes	24	3
Hereditary peers	..	621
Law	..	6
Totals	399	656

Q.—Is the Prussian Lower House elected by universal franchise?

A.—Yes. By universal franchise, but not by equal franchise. Every Prussian citizen is allowed to vote, but he elects "electors"—an indirect method, like our method of electing a President by first electing the electoral college. These electors, in turn, are divided into three classes, according to the amounts of taxes paid, and it is this method which became the point of attack for the political reformers in Germany during the war, with the result that the Emperor, as King of

Prussia, supported a reform bill to make the suffrage really equal. Under the tax-classification method, the biggest taxpayers were automatically able to cast the biggest vote.

The Chamber of Deputies (Abgeordnetenhaus) has 443 members, sitting for five years. Any Prussian citizen is eligible to sit in the Chamber of Deputies.

Q.—Is education compulsory in Germany?

A.—It is general and compulsory. The elementary schools are supported by local rates in every town and village, and the school age is from six to fourteen.

Q.—How do schools compare in the warring nations?

A.—Germany (population 65 millions) had 10 millions of pupils in elementary schools in the last school census. The United States (population 102 million) had 20 million pupils. Great Britain (population 47 million) had 7½ million pupils. France (population 40 million) enumerated a little less than 5 million pupils. Italy (population 36 million) had 3½ million pupils.

Q.—What is the proportion of illiteracy in the warring European Powers?

A.—According to the U. S. Census Bureau figures it runs as follows: illiteracy among German army recruits, .05 per cent; illiteracy among army recruits in United Kingdom (Great Britain), 1 per cent; French army recruits, 4.3 per cent; Italian army recruits, 31.1 per cent; Russian, 61.7 per cent; Roumanian, 41.0 per cent; Serbian, 43.4 per cent; Bulgarian, 25.4 per cent; Belgium, 7.9 per cent. There are no figures for Austro-Hungarian army recruits.

Q.—Does Germany lead in education?

A.—Before the war, there was a general acceptance of the statement (made by nearly every writer and sociological student of the world) that Germany was eminent in advanced education—particularly that sort of scientific education which is international in character to the extent that it draws advanced students from other countries who wish to complete their special knowledge.

Q.—How did German universities compare with the famous English ones?

A.—If universities, technical schools, production of books, and the like, be taken as guides, Germany leads. Germany has 22 universities, with an enrolment of 53,000.

England's 18 universities have an enrolment of 35,000, drawn almost exclusively from the upper classes. Germany has, in addition, 11 technical schools ranking as universities, with 16,000 students, and 32 other technical academies. In addition, there are some 430 commercial schools, and more than a hundred schools where students are prepared for the textile and other great industries. In England, technical schools, supported by public funds, had in 1913 an enrolment of only 1,485. It is estimated that 46 out of every thousand of the population in England, attend secondary schools; in Belgium, 47; in Switzerland, 72; and in Germany, 110.

Q.—Does Germany publish more books than Great Britain?

A.—Roughly, in ordinary years there are some 12,000 works published in Great Britain. The annual German production is 35,000.

Q.—Is there a State religion in Germany?

A.—The Imperial Constitution provides for entire liberty of conscience, and for complete social equality among all religious confessions. In the different States there are various minor differences in the relations between Church and State. The majority of the religious population is Protestant, and the majority of the Protestants are Lutheran. These Protestants form about 63 per cent of the church census. Catholics form about 36 per cent. Roman Catholics are in the majority, however, in three of the States—Bavaria, Baden and Alsace-Lorraine.

Q.—Has Germany more boys than girls?

A.—In normal times more boys were born each year than girls. In the last year for which we have orderly figures (1913) there were 60,000 more boys born than girls. It is said that war tends to change this ratio, but there is no scientific warrant for the belief, and no statistics have ever been kept to enable anybody to figure it out.

Q.—Can Germany get more soldiers out of its population than any other nation?

A.—Many figures have been given in the first three years of war to prove that this or that nation can or cannot extract from its population as much human war material as some other nation can. Most of these mathematical exercises were valuable only as intellectual pastimes. It seems true to say that Germany can, without doubt, extract from her growing young male population at least as many men as any other nation can draw. And it may be assumed, as a further element of calculation, that Germany's very up-to-date hygienic care for her population will have given the growing males a maximum chance for physical efficiency. This does not mean, however, that they are supermen. There is a big proportion of each generation who are physically unfit, as in every country.

Q.—Have the German Socialists always opposed militarism?

A.—They have done so consistently and continually. As recently before the war as 1912, there was a big Socialist anti-military explosion in the Reichstag. It was on October 20, 1912, and on that same day demonstrations were made in Dusseldorf, Dortmund, Bremen, Kiel, Leipzig, Berlin, Hamburg, Dresden, Spandau, Cassel, Frankfurt and Stuttgart. Similar ones occurred on November 17, 1912, in Bremen and Hanover.

In October and November, 1912, protests against the advances of Austrian diplomacy in the Balkan situation were made in the Bavarian Parliament, and in the Austrian Parliament. Protest meetings were held during these months at Prague and other Hungarian towns, Vienna, and throughout Austria.

The German Socialists protested in Parliament (Reichstag) against the Zabern Affair on November 28 and December 3 and 4, 1913, and again on January 23 and 24, 1914.

Q.—Did the Socialists ever vote for Army and Navy appropriations?

A.—Yes. They did so once—the year before the war. Before 1913 the German and Austrian Socialists, in their Parliaments, had voted at all times against the Army and Navy budgets, and against all increase in taxes for military purposes. In September, 1913, however, the German Socialists voted in favor of such a tax, and defended their action in their party press.

Q.—What did the Socialists do when war came?

A.—At the outbreak of the war, the German Socialist party issued a "Proclamation," in which occurs the following: "Not one drop of a German soldier's blood shall be sacrificed to the lust of power of the Austrian rulers and to the imperialistic profit-interests."

Mass-meetings were held in Berlin on July 28, 1914—28 meetings in all, with an attendance estimated at 70,000. Similar meetings were held in nearly all the other large cities, often dispersed by police and soldiers. On July 29, 1914, the *Vorwaerts*, the Socialist daily in Berlin, placed the blame on Austria.

In July, 1914, the Austrian Socialists protested in Parliament and in mass-meetings against the policy pursued by the Austro-Hungarian Government towards Serbia.

When war was declared, however, the Austrian and Hungarian Socialists supported their Government.

Q.—What was the Reichstag's politics when we declared war?

A.—On March 1, 1917, the following parties were represented: Center party, 91; Social Democrats, 89; National Liberals, 44; Radicals, 46; Conservatives, 45; German party, 26; Poles, 18; Social Democratic Labor Union, 19; Independents, 15.

Q.—Has no party a majority in the Reichstag?

A.—The total number of Reichstag delegates is 393, with no one party having anything like a majority. The various factions line up in perplexing ways on various questions. The general rule has been that in close questions the Center party (which used to be called the Clerical party, and still is heavily Catholic) often had the deciding vote, because it could throw its big group of votes to one side or the other.

The Social Democrats have a similar power, but they have, as a rule, not accepted the tactics of throwing their votes to any side, preferring to vote solidly and single-mindedly for their own particular purposes.

Q.—How many Socialists are in Germany?

A.—The general German elections of 1912 showed 4,250,000 Socialists in a total number of 14,400,000 voters. They had 2¼ million adherents more than the next most powerful party, the Center party. The parties that followed in numerical importance were: National, Liberals, Radicals and Conservatives. Each of these had more than a million adherents. Thus, while the Socialist element among the German voters is far from a possible majority of the popular suffrage, it is easily the most powerful party in the empire, so far as massed solidarity is concerned.

Q.—Who first proposed "No Annexations, No Indemnities"?

A.—It was the peace formula of Philip Scheidemann and the majority of German Socialists, and it was quickly adopted by the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies in Petrograd, who, moreover, added "the right of all nations to determine their own destiny." The Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies protested against the continuation of the war for the annexation of peoples against their will or for imperialistic ends. The minority German Socialists adopted the Russian formula.

Q.—When was there a mutiny in the German fleet?

A.—The trouble, which, no doubt, really did reach the magnitude of a mutiny, or almost mutiny, appears to have occurred early in the summer of 1917. Very little actual fact reached the world. There was a discussion in the Reichstag, but, while it was fairly full about the political aspects of the disorder, there was little said about the actual happenings. Many long and elaborate dispatches reached America from neutral and Allied countries, some so circumstantial as to be quite convincing. These told of officers being killed and thrown overboard on a number of ships, bombardment of the mutinous ships by the coast batteries, etc.

Q.—Were these stories not true?

A.—Many of them were obviously made of whole cloth, for the various detailed accounts were so utterly different from each other as to prove this. That does not mean, however, that we can tell which account was untrue, or which may have been true. The mutiny was undoubtedly serious, for a number of sailors were condemned either to death or long imprisonment, and the Government declared its intention of prosecuting three Socialist Reichstag members, for their share in spreading propaganda that caused the unrest.

Q.—When did the strikes against war-aims start in Germany?

A.—In the last days of January, 1918. On January 30, 1918, dispatches reached the United States from Zurich that the great Socialist newspaper of Germany, the *Vorwaerts* (*Forward*), of Berlin, had announced that the strikers had addressed to the Government an ultimatum with the principal demands:

(1) Accelerated conclusion of a general peace without annexations or indemnities.

(2) Participation of workmen's delegates of all the countries in the peace negotiations.

(3) Equal suffrage in Prussia.

(4) Release of arrested labor leaders.

Q.—Did the German Government imprison the strike leaders?

A.—Apparently the strike did not have sufficient sanction of the Socialist party and similar bodies behind it, to become more than a very striking and forcible demonstration. The military government, however, did take punitive measures in some parts of Germany. Wilhelm Dittmann, a prominent Radical Socialist member of the Reichstag, was accused before an extraordinary court-martial of inciting to high treason, and sentenced to fortress confinement of five years.

Q.—What is "Fortress Confinement"?

A.—It is imprisonment that does not carry with it the stigma or onus of imprisonment in jails or penitentiaries. In fact, in a sense it gives the imprisoned person a certificate of personal honor, and men who have suffered this form of punishment need feel no sense of shame. They are not convicts, either in the legal or the moral sense. Officers of the German Army are punished for military offenses in this way. Men accused of moral crime are never sent to fortresses.

Q.—Does fortress imprisonment differ in actual details from other imprisonment?

A.—Wholly so. A "fortress," in the legal sense, may be a very wide area, in-

deed. It is not necessarily limited to the actual limits of a fortification. There are degrees of fortress imprisonment. A man may be sentenced to "close confinement" in a fortress, in which case he may not be permitted to go beyond the exact limits of a walled fort. In very severe sentences he may even be confined largely to a casemate, but this is unusual. Most cases permit the arrested man to move practically at will throughout the uttermost limits of a fortified area. In some cases, this may give him practical freedom of a whole town.

Q.—Are fortress prisoners treated like convicts?

A.—No. In fact, pains are generally taken to avoid any similarity between their treatment and that of convicts. They may associate with the officers of the fortress, may be invited to mess more or less like other guests, and have practically all their liberties except that of physical freedom. A great deal depends on the character of the prisoner and his offense. A Socialist strike-leader is not likely to receive studied politeness from his military hosts in a fortress!

Q.—Were the dissensions in Germany local?

A.—No. There were strikes and agitation against the militarist war-makers in all parts of the empire. While the General Staff in Berlin proceeded rigorously against the strikers, the militarists did not dare do so in Bavaria and other southern States of Germany.

Q.—Were the southern States against Prussia?

A.—According to all indications, they were in favor of the Austrian policy of holding out a hand to their opponents. It seemed to be a fairly sharp division—the smaller German States and the big cities of the south (Munich, Stuttgart, Dresden) against Prussia. The three Republics, too (Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck) appeared to be against Berlin, which means Prussia.

Q.—How long are Germany's land frontiers?

A.—The Russian frontier is 843 miles. The French frontier is 242 miles. The Swiss frontier is 256 miles, and the Holland frontier is 377 miles.

Q.—Are the frontiers all guarded by forts?

A.—Yes. The fortress system on the French frontier is based on Metz, and the Cologne-Koblenz system north of it. The Alsace-Lorraine front is guarded by the Strassburg-New Breisach system.

Q.—Is Berlin guarded by forts?

A.—The Berlin system of fortifications is Spandau, Magdeburg Torgau, Kustrin. They form a protective zone about sixty miles outside of and around Berlin.

Q.—What are the distances in the European battleground?

A.—The comparative scale of the areas involved is shown by the following distances:

	Miles.
Dover-Brussels	140
Brussels-Cologne	115
Paris-Belgian Frontier	115
Paris-German Frontier	170
Dover-Calais	21
London-Wilhelmshaven	400
Strassburg-French Frontier	30
Berlin-Warsaw	330
Berlin-Constantinople	1,699
Paris-Lille	130
Calais-Lille	55
Berlin-Petrograd	1,150
Berlin-Paris	550
Berlin-Munich	315
Munich-Paris	430
Munich-Petrograd	1,300
Munich-Venice	190
Munich-Vienna	230
Vienna-Belgrade	210
Venice-Austrian Frontier	45
Galatz-Odessa	140
Riga-Petrograd	300

Q.—How can an American get out of Germany?

A.—Under the rules of international law resident alien enemies may be detained, especially those subject to military service. They may be interned.

For an American to quit Germany, a legal and an "illegal" way is open. The American may ask the Ambassador of Spain, who is rendering "his good services" to the U. S. A. during the war, and who is protecting Americans in Germany, to intervene in his behalf, and obtain permission for him to leave. This has been done on previous occasions with good success during the Maximilian war in Mexico, the Franco-Prussian war, the Chinese-Japanese war, the Spanish-Amer-

ican war, and the Russo-Japanese war. If the American is detained he might prefer to end his captivity by adventurous escape. Escapes of this kind have been most successful into Holland. The case of the American, private dentist of the Kaiser, who received a passport from the German Government, and arrived here —March, 1918—is a special one, and cannot be compared with others.

Q.—Did the Germans use negroes against General Smuts in Africa?

A.—There were only 2,000 Germans in East Africa, but they had drilled about 18,000 natives, and they used them against the South African forces. There were also African natives under General Smuts' command, although he chiefly relied upon Afrikanders and Indian troops. The Belgian Army, which advanced from the Congo, was almost entirely composed of natives, and the Portuguese forces which entered German East Africa from the south were native, too, for the most part.

Q.—Is it true that the German Government has been willing to spend large sums of money in the United States to suppress evidence that the Kaiser planned the war?

A.—It has been stated with authority that an American journalist, during a yachting trip with the German Emperor ten years ago, got an interview in which the monarch expressed ideas that seemed to imply a plan of something like world-domination. The journalist prepared a magazine article for a New York magazine. The German Ambassador, von Bernstorff, heard about it after the magazine was printed and before it was published. The German Government bought all the sheets of the magazine, packed them in tin-lined cases, and sent a German warship for them. The article has never been published, but one copy of the magazine has found its way into the hands of Secretary of State Lansing, and has been added to the evidence in the case which will probably be published at the conclusion of the war.

Q.—What is the "Hymn of Hate"?

A.—A German poem of hatred against England, written by Ernest Lissauer, in 1915. It has been set to music and appears in some of the German school song books.

Q.—Why are the Germans called "Boches"?

A.—"Boche" appears to be an abbreviation of "Alboche," an Alsatian word for "Allemand" (meaning German).

In Alsace-Lorraine, it has been for some time used as a synonym for drunkard, liar, barbarian, and adjectively for "unmentionably cruel." The French adopted the word in the beginning of the war as typifying the Prussians. Many other explanations are given from time to time of what the slang-word really means, and how it came to be applied.

It was probably used also in the Franco-Prussian War in 1870, for Zola, in his novel *La Débâcle*, a story dealing with the war, puts the term in the mouths of French soldiers to designate the Germans. The term *ce boche* was used, before the Franco-Prussian War at least, as equivalent to "that chump," and *tête de boche* is given by French dictionaries of slang as equivalent to "wooden-pate" or "blockhead." It is, perhaps, for this reason that some French scholars derive the present use of *boche* from *caboche*, a French word meaning head.

Q.—Are outside newspapers censored before they circulate in Germany?

A.—There does not appear to be any attempt to censor the Allied journals going into Germany. The Germans, no doubt, regard them much as we regard the Teutonic newspapers, that is to say, as inaccurate and misinformed, and take no more notice of our comments on the war than we do of theirs.

Q.—Was the German Emperor on a cruise when war began?

A.—He was away on his cruiser yacht when the crisis began. He got back, however, before war broke out, and immediately sent personal telegrams to the Czar and King George.

Q.—Who signed the order for mobilization in Germany?

A.—Presumably it was signed by von Moltke, who was at that time chief of the General Staff in Germany.

Q.—Did the Germans have concrete gun emplacements in France and Belgium before the war?

A.—That was one of the romantic tales supplied to the world early in the war.

It was the sort of thing that appealed to the popular imagination, and during the time that the story enjoyed the greatest belief, similar concrete gun-emplacements were "discovered" in scores of places in this country, even as far away from the seat of war as the mountains of California. The knowledge that has come to the public since then regarding the methods and strategies of war, has served to indicate that even the most skilful plotters cannot quite plot out beforehand just where a big engagement will be fought or just where the hostile position is going to be. Military men knew that the story was probably fiction of a rather absurd kind, but it was no part of the Allied military experts' duty to disabuse the world of the idea.

Q.—Were German soldiers worse than others in the march on Pekin?

A.—According to revelations made by correspondents who managed to get through to Pekin, and by officers after the trouble was over, there seems to have been very little to choose between the conduct of the various troops. Of all, the Japanese emerged with the cleanest record, and the Tonkinese troops of the French with the worst. The Kaiser's message to Count Waldersee, who commanded the expedition, has, however, been everywhere reproduced, and consequently it has been assumed that the atrocities attributed to the international troops were all committed by the Germans.

Q.—What was the object of Berlin's gigantic Hindenburg statue?

A.—The object of it was the same as that of the raffles and similar ingenious devices we see every day, namely, to raise money for certain funds. People paid a mark, or more if they liked, for the privilege of hammering a nail into it. The money thus obtained was devoted to assisting the dependents of those who have fallen in battle.

Q.—It must be pretty solid to stand all those nails?

A.—It is. The wood used weighed 26 tons. Three solid blocks were used, the statue being carefully carved under the direction of a well-known sculptor, George Marschall. No less than 87 expert wood carvers worked on the hard wood night and day. As it was expected that at least 30 tons of nails would be driven in, special steel reinforcement weighing six tons was deemed necessary. A smaller statue to serve the same object was erected to von Müller of the famous raiding ship *Emden,* in the town of Emden.

Q.—Did the Dutch claim damages from England for a ship sunk by Germany?

A.—Yes; in the case of two ships, the *Bernisse* and the *Elve.* The cases were similar. The Dutch claim was as follows:

The *Bernisse* was stopped by a British auxiliary cruiser. A British officer boarded her, and then, on a signal from the cruiser, proceeded to navigate the ship to the British port of Kirkwall, where the cargo could be examined.

The Dutch captain protested, "because the ship would then enter into the area blockaded by Germany, stating that there was no ground for such an order, the ship being entirely Dutch property and of Dutch nationality, the shippers being a French concern, the cargo being consigned to a Dutch company."

The protest availed naught, and the *Bernisse* continued on the way to Kirkwall, still flying the Dutch flag. On May 23 she was attacked by a German submarine. According to the account of the *Bernisse's* skipper: "The submarine continued to fire while the boats were being lowered, without, however, hitting either the ship or any of the crew. She then launched a torpedo, which struck the ship starboard near the stokehold."

The *Elve* case was almost identical. The British Government declined to recognize the claim, but said it might be presented to a prize court.

Q.—How much power has the Crown Prince of Germany?

A.—Technically he has none (except of course such military power as is given to him by virtue of commanding an army). Politically he occupies about the same officially unimportant position as does the Heir-Apparent to the British throne (Prince of Wales).

His importance in the national and international politics of the day comes from two main causes: (1) he might at any moment become Emperor through the

death of Wilhelm; (2) he can gather around him, or be used as a rallying point by, factions that want the Empire to hold by the sword what it has gained by the sword. This would make a sharp rift between his father, the Emperor, and himself, should the Emperor lean to the liberal and moderate factions in Germany and declare for concessions and more or less democracy. Of course it might prove a double-edged weapon. The Crown Prince's faction might win; but should it lose, or should it involve the Empire in ruin, it might end the reign of the Hohenzollern dynasty.

Q.—Did the present emperor, while Crown Prince, try to over-ride his father?

A.—Yes. It did not reach the extent of a quarrel or even a serious disturbance of family relations; but the present Kaiser's father was altogether too placid an Emperor to suit his very strenuous son. Friedrich III (lovingly called "Unser Fritz" by the Germans) was a singularly tolerant, kindly, easy-going man, very simple and old-fashioned. His Germany was the old, deliberate Germany. The son, Wilhelm, was intensely modern—a foremost exponent of the "strenuous life" made famous by Roosevelt. He was eager to build up the great economic and social structure that he did succeed in building up. It was inevitable that he should urge his ideas, and that he should become desperately impatient with the mild Friedrich and with the stiff conservatism of Bismarck.

Q.—What would happen should the Kaiser be killed?

A.—The present Crown Prince would succeed to the Imperial office by virtue of the Constitution. There is hardly a doubt that the military party would proclaim him Emperor instantly, in order to prevent any possible move by the Socialists and others to change the existing provisions of the national law.

Q.—Is it true that the Germans are officially encouraging polygamy?

A.—The charge was based on the circulation of a curious and absurd pamphlet advocating not only polygamy, but bigamy and various other forms of union which were even more unsavory. The author was one Carl Hermann Torges, who appears to have been an elderly man of eccentric mentality, as is suggested by the title of his pamphlet: "The Secondary Marriage as Only Means for the Rapid Creation of a New and Powerful Army and the Purification of Morality." He says of himself that he is "over 70 years old and has worked through life with open eyes." The pamphlet was apparently circulated free, and this fact gave color to a charge that it had been published with the connivance of the German Government. As such a policy (quite apart from the question of morality and the love of husbands and wives) would shatter the very foundation of any such economic State as Germany, it seems hardly important to expatiate on the matter.

GERMANY (FOOD)

Q.—What did a German get to eat in 1918?

A.—The German bill of fare was about as follows:

Meat: In Berlin, 250 grams—about one-half a pound—per person per week; in Munich, 200 grams; in Saxony, 150 grams.

Bread: 250 grams per day per person; all persons performing manual labor, 500 grams.

Potatoes: In Berlin, five to seven pounds per person per week; in Bavaria, usually ten pounds per person per week.

Butter and Fats: In Berlin, from 50 to 75 grams per person per week; in Leipzig, from 30 to 90 grams; in Bavaria, between 60 and 90 grams.

Milk: Babies and patients in hospitals now receive from one-fourth to one-half quart per day each. A year ago every child and every sick person received one liter (½ quart) per day.

Sugar: 800 grams per month per person.

Vegetables: In season.

Fish: Whenever obtainable.

Jam or marmalade: About one-fourth of a pound per month.

No coffee, tea or cocoa, but small quantities of coffee and tea substitutes. No pure beer, but only beer substitutes.

Q.—What were the military rations?

A.—The soldier's food ration was as follows:

Breakfast: Coffee or a substitute, with dry bread.

Lunch: Soup with occasional small pieces of meat; vegetables and bread.

Supper: Bread and marmalade.

One pound of war bread daily was allowed.

Q.—What is the "iron ration"?

A.—The "iron ration" is the emergency ration which the German soldier carries in his pack. It is called "iron ration" because iron-like rules surround it. The soldier must carry it always, and no soldier must ever, under any circumstances, touch it except in the last extremity. When the starvation-blockade began to squeeze the people hard, and they were reduced to their smallest portions of the poorest food-materials, it became a grim jest among civilians to refer to their "iron rations."

Q.—Was the German bread ticket intended to effect an equal distribution?

A.—No. It was issued, at first, that the poor might have cheap bread and that those who were willing to buy more food than the bread ticket prescribed should have to pay heavily for the indulgence.

Q.—Is Germany's bread very poor?

A.—The official regulations provided for a bread that may or may not be highly palatable, but that consists of perfectly healthful and nourishing mixtures. "War breads" were a prominent part of Germany's early defense against starvation when the oceanic blockade began. As we have found, these various war breads were awful only in name, and actually have turned out to be decidedly good, on the whole, so that it may be that the United States, as a mere matter of health, pleasant variety, and perfectly profitable economy will retain most of these various bran, oatmeal, rye, corn and wheat mixtures in its normal dietary.

However, during the "peak" of the cereal famine pinch in Germany, the war breads were decidedly not nice or good, and in very many places throughout the empire they were quite terribly bad. Some reports say that they were made of less than 40 per cent wheat, the other 60 per cent being sawdust, powdered straw, and other such organic but vile admixtures. That kind of bread means that a part, at least, of the German population was reduced almost to the situation of German peasants in the Thirty Years' War, when they often ate straw.

Q.—Is it true that the Germans made many food substitutes?

A.—Yes. The German newspapers have carried masses of advertising of substitutes for all the various kind of food that are short. According to the reports generally circulated through the outer world, there were as many as 7,000 substitutes in 1917, but expert analysis of the available lists shows that this huge number is arrived at by lumping the following four chief classes of substitutes: (1) normal substitutes like oleomargarines, syrups, etc., such as are used in all countries; (2) natural, though unusual, substitutes, such as potato meal for flour, vegetable and

spice, or fish and vegetable mixtures for sausages, sweetened vegetable mixtures for jams, etc.; (3) chemical substitutes, some of apparent utility, many of doubtful value, and some, no doubt, harmful, such as fat extracts from chemical compounds, chemical sweetenings, and chemical compounds aiming to give a more or less balanced artificial ration of proteids, carbohydrates, etc.; (4) swindling substitutes, which the Government prosecutes rigorously (more so than in times of peace even), but which thrive naturally owing to the craving of people for long-denied foods. Among such fraudulent substitutes were "soup cubes," which turned out to consist of 96 per cent cooking salt and 4 per cent coloring matter.

Q.—Is Prussia much bigger than the other States?

A.—Very much so. Prussia contains 135,000 square miles, against the 29,000 square miles of Bavaria, which is the next larger kingdom of the Federation. It has 40 million people as against Bavaria's 7 million—that is, it compares in manpower with its nearest neighbor about the way the Middle Atlantic and Great Lakes States compare with the South Atlantic group.

Q.—Have our States less population than Prussia?

A.—No single American State compares with Prussia even remotely. Prussia has more population than New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin combined though in area it is not larger than New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania.

Q.—How do the people find room?

A.—They live 224 to the square mile. This is a denser population than we have anywhere except Massachusetts, Rhode Island and New Jersey.

Q.—Is the rest of Germany densely populated?

A.—Even more densely than Prussia. In Saxony, 829 people live to the square mile. No other German State quite equals that! But everywhere the populations range around 300 to the square mile.

Q.—How can there be any room for farms?

A.—There is plenty of room for farms and forests—but there is no room for wild lands, or waste lands, or unproductive lands. That density of population is one of the secrets of Germany's intensity in economical industries. The people had to do it, or starve, or emigrate. The result was intensive agriculture, intensive industry and now, alas, an all too intensive and "practical" deadliness of purpose in war.

Q.—How does Germany's agricultural area compare with ours?

A.—Germany has about 88 million acres arable land (farms, pastures, vineyards), as against more than 600 million acres in America, of which latter, however, only 358 million are cultivated.

Q.—How do we compare in farms with Germany?

A.—We had more than 6 million farms in 1910 when the last census was made. In Germany, in 1907, the number of farms cultivated each by one household was 5,736,000. Our farms, of course, were much larger than the German farms.

Q.—What were the chief crops of Germany in peace?

A.—The biggest crop was rye. The next biggest was hay. Then came oats, potatoes, wheat, barley and beets. The smaller crops were vines, tobacco and hops.

Q.—Could human beings live on rye flour alone?

A.—Yes. Indeed, dietary experts hold that while white wheat flour is one of the large elements for a perfect human diet, mankind (and especially Americans) would do well to use a great deal of rye flour and cut down heavily on the highly bolted and unnaturally whitened wheat flours. Rye flour is coarse, and this has an excellent effect on the intestines, which absolutely demand a certain amount of coarse material. For many generations the people of Germany, France, Switzerland, etc., ate hardly anything except "black bread"—bread made from rye flour exclusively.

Q.—What has German intensive agriculture done?

A.—Statistics collected by Dr. Helfferich in 1913 show that the yield per acre of wheat, rye, oats, barley, potatoes, and hay has increased 77.7 per cent in twenty-five years; and the aggregate yield of these crops increased 87.7 per cent, notwithstanding an increase of only 5.8 per

cent in their acreage. In all these crops Germany is getting a larger yield per acre than any other of the large agricultural countries. At the same time Germany has increased production of beet sugar about two-and-one-half fold. These remarkable results in agriculture are the more striking because the number of persons engaged in agriculture has remained practically stationary.

Q.—Did the privileged classes in Germany escape food restrictions?

A.—One would imagine, naturally, that they did. But the fact that the Socialist newspapers and the Socialist members of the Imperial Parliament and the various State Parliaments have voiced practically no serious censure of the government's enforcement of food regulations, indicates that the law was applied in about the same measure to everybody.

It is known that several times highly placed persons appealed to the Emperor himself, but without avail. The live stock and other materials of high officers in the field have been taken from their estates and a Princess was not allowed to have all the milk from a special cow, which she had bought for her child.

Q.—Is corn native to Europe?

A.—Not if you mean what we call "corn"—the American plant which produces its fruit in large cobs covered with a green sheath. This is one of the comparatively few important foods that were added to the world's supply by the discovery of America, potatoes being the other great addition.

In Europe the name for this western crop is maize, and that is the correct name. "Corn," in European terms, means wheat, rye, etc.

Maize is raised quite extensively now through Europe, but it is nothing like the agricultural leader that it is in America.

Q.—What coffee substitutes were used in Germany?

A.—Coffee substitutes were made of chicory (the root of the dandelion), burnt or roasted, and ground beans or crusts, vegetable husks, etc. "Chicory-coffee" is not an unusual suostitute in Europe. Many of the French and German lower classes have preferred chicory even in peace times—indeed, many French people of the better classes hold that a certain proportion of chicory in coffee improves it. Chicory has a bitter flavoring element in it. It is, as a matter of fact, healthful, but lacks the stimulating properties of coffee. The other substitutes, however, are of qualities ranging from unsatisfactory to nasty.

Q.—Can Germany get fed by Russia?

A.—The food situation in Germany for given years preceding the war was as follows (each year): (1) Rye: enough produced for Germany's consumption and a small surplus to export. (2) Wheat: 1/9 was imported from overseas and from Russia. (3) Barley: ½ was imported almost wholly from Russia. (Used for fattening pigs.) (4) Maize (corn): ⅞ came from Russia and across the Atlantic. (Used for fattening pigs.) (5) Bran: imported 1¼ million tons, ¼ from Russia (for cow feed). (6) Oil-cake: imported ½ million tons from Russia and America (for cow feed). (7) Artificial nitrogenous manures; ½ came from Chile, none from Russia. (8) Rice: ¾ imported from British India, none from Russia. (9) Eggs: half the supply from Russia and enemy countries.

Q.—Has Russia accumulated any food-stuffs?

A.—A considerable amount of various cereals have been stocked in Russia. Over the first three years of war this accumulation was about 24,000,000 tons. In 1917, about 8,000,000 tons were available. The production of food cereals, however, has declined steadily since 1915, and the chaotic economic conditions, no doubt, have impeded the production considerably since March, 1917. The opening of the Russian food markets to Germany, no doubt, brought the Germans and Austrians some sorely needed relief in the early part of 1918, but nothing had then developed to prove that it could restore normal conditions in the Central Empires. Normally, the Ukraine wheat fields should be able to feed all Europe if they were cultivated with modern machinery.

Q.—Can the Germans get much meat from Bulgaria?

A.—They could not have obtained a great deal, although the Bulgars, during recent years, have devoted a good deal of attention to the raising of sheep. These had become so numerous that shortly before the war a beginning was made with a huge slaughterhouse and freezing establishment at Varna, from

which mutton was to be exported to Turkey, Greece, and even Egypt. Still, what would be over-abundance for the Bulgars would not go very far for Germany.

Bulgaria had 8½ million sheep in 1910, the date of the last animal census. Her cattle amounted to 1,600,000. Altogether she had about 12 million head of stock to 5 million population. Thus she had a surplus.

Q.—Are there any figures on Germany's live stock?

A.—According to the animal census in April, 1916, the number of cattle in Germany had been reduced to 19,900,000, and there were only 13,300,000 pigs left. A further census appears to have been taken in September, 1916, and shows a remarkable increase, especially in the number of pigs. The figures are as follows:

Horned Cattle.	Apr. 15, 1916.	Sept. 1, 1916.	Inc. per cent.
Calves under 3 months	1,974,434	1,982,891	0.4
Young cattle, 3 months-2 yrs.	6,092,718	6,307,504	4.6
Bulls and oxen over 2 years..	1,365,877	1,451,122	6.2
Cows and heifers over 2 yrs.	10,552,154	10,597,433	0.4
Total	19,921,183	20,338,950	2.1
Pigs.			
Under 6 months	9,055,382	11,204,976	23.7
6-12 months....	2,857,041	4,230,890	48.1
Over 12 months	1,424,779	1,825,242	28.1
Total	13,337,202	17,261,108	29.4

Q.—What live stock had Germany before war?

A.—According to the official German figures there were in September, 1912, 20,182,000 cattle; in September, 1913, 20,994,000. On those dates the numbers of pigs were 21,821,000 and 25,659,000 respectively.

Q.—Did Germany have more live stock than other countries?

A.—Germany had in 1916 about 50½ million head of food-animals (cattle, sheep, swine, etc.) for a population of about 68 million.

The United States had in 1917 about 176 million head of live stock for a population of about 102 million.

Of course, it must be remembered that the United States is a meat-exporting country, while Germany is not.

Comparing Germany's live stock per head of population with that of non-exporting countries, we find: France, about 29 million head of meat animals to 40 million population; United Kingdom (England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales), about 45 million head to 45 million population.

Q.—How does German milk production per cow compare?

A.—In the United States the average yield among 11 million cows is 420 gallons of milk per cow a year. In Denmark (1,500,000 cows), the average yield per cow per year was 550 gallons before the war when feeding conditions were normal. In Germany before the war the average yield was 750 gallons per cow per year.

Q.—What supplies has Austria-Hungary?

A.—That empire, with a population just about the same as that of the United Kingdom, had, when the war broke out, 17,000,000 cattle, 12,000,000 sheep, 13,000,000 pigs, 3,500,000 horses, 2,000,000 goats.

THE SELECTIVE DRAFT

Q.—When was the selective draft law passed?

A.—The "Select Service Law" is an Act of Congress, which came into full force May 18, 1917. The law is entitled: "An Act to authorize the President to increase temporarily the Military Establishment of the United States." Its purpose was the raising of troops to carry on the war against Germany. It was drawn to create a "National Army."

Q.—Was the first draft really a selective one?

A.—It was, of course, hoped and intended to raise our new army in a way that would leave as many agricultural workers as possible on the farms to keep the world from starving, and to take men, as much as possible, from the occupations which were less essential. The actual results, however, owing to our haste and inexperience, were not by any means intelligently selective, as the table below of the numbers and percentages accepted from different occupations will show:

	Called.	Accepted.	Pct.
Beverage industries	5,752	1,472	25¾
Agriculture	782,503	205,731	26¼
Forestry	24,507	7,984	32½
Clay, glass, etc....	24,928	6,022	24
Animal husbandry.	15,642	4,570	29
General trade.....	111,541	24,892	22

Q.—When was the first drawing for the selective draft?

A.—The official drawing of numbers to determine the men of the country to constitute the first draft for the National Army was July 20, 1917, in the Office Building of the United States Senate, in the presence of the Secretary of War, many army officers of high rank, Senators and Representatives and many citizens.

Numbered slips incased in capsules were drawn by two blindfolded men and these were announced and unofficially transmitted over the country by the press. The official list was announced later by the Secretary of War.

The first number drawn was 258. After that the numbers were drawn, at the rate of 600 an hour. It required 22 hours to complete the work.

Q.—What is meant by the "master list"?

A.—A drawing of numbers from 1 to 10,500, both inclusive, was made in Washington under the direction of the Secretary of War.

A schedule or master list was prepared by the Provost Marshal General containing all of such numbers from 1 to 10,500, both inclusive, placed in the exact order in which they were drawn.

The first number drawn was placed at the top of column 1 of the master list, the second number drawn was placed next below in such master list, and this order was followed until all the numbers drawn were so placed in such master list in the exact order in which they were drawn.

The master list controls and determines the exact order in which the persons whose registration cards are in the possession of the respective Local Boards, or may hereafter be received by said Local Boards, are liable to be called by the Local Board for Military Service.

Q.—Is provision made to notify families of boys in training camps if they are ill?

A.—The American Red Cross has agreed to establish in the camps and cantonments in the United States the service (already furnished in France) to keep families in America in personal touch with their boys, ill or wounded in the field. This action is in response to a request made by the Secretary of War, who wrote that "American Red Cross representatives at the camps here, as in France, would have access to daily lists of admissions and evacuations from the hospitals, and, so far as it is in accord with necessary medical rules, would be allowed to talk with sick men. They would be expected to keep families constantly informed as to the condition and progress of men in the hospitals, to write letters for men unable to write themselves, and in general to fulfill that clause of the Red Cross charter which designates the society as 'a medium of communication between troops in the field and their families at home.'"

Q.—Can a man be drafted who has had previous service?

A.—Yes, he is a civilian and liable to draft.

Q.—What is the ratio of death in the U. S. Army?

A.—Figures compiled at the office of Surg. Gen. William C. Gorgas, U. S. A., and made public on Dec. 29, 1917, show that with more than 900,000 soldiers in training in this country from Sept. 21 to Dec. 14, there were only 1,391 deaths from all causes, an average rate of less than two per 1,000. Among the 202,009 Regulars there were 144 deaths. There were 494 deaths in the 387,233 National Army and 753 deaths in the 327,480 National Guardsmen.

Secretary Baker said:

"The death rate in our forces in the United States, from mid-September to the end of December averaged 7.5 per thousand, and is slightly less than would have been the death rate of men of the same age at home. In 1898 the death rate per thousand was 20.14, or nearly three times as great. Our death rate in the Army during the year 1916, just before the war, was five per thousand. Leaving out the deaths due to measles and its complications, our rate among all troops in the United States since Sept. 1 has been about two per thousand."

Q.—Where are the draft army cantonments?

Place.	Name.	Designation.
Alexandria, La.	Camp Beauregard	National Guard
American Lake, Wash.	Camp Lewis	National Army
Annapolis Junction, Md.	Camp Meade	Do.
Anniston, Ala.	Camp McClellan	National Guard
Atlanta, Ga.	Camp Gordon	National Army
Augusta, Ga.	Camp Hancock	National Guard
Ayer, Mass.	Camp Devens	National Army
Battle Creek, Mich.	Camp Custer	Do.
Charlotte, N. C.	Camp Greene	National Guard
Chillicothe, Ohio	Camp Sherman	National Army
Columbia, S. C.	Camp Jackson	Do.
Deming, N. Mex.	Camp Cody	National Guard
Des Moines, Iowa	Camp Dodge	National Army
Fort Riley, Kans.	Camp Funston	Do.
Fort Sam Houston, Tex.	Camp Travis	Do.
Fort Sill, Okla.	Camp Doniphan	National Guard
Fort Worth, Tex.	Camp Bowie	Do.
Greenville, S. C.	Camp Sevier	Do.
Hattiesburg, Miss.	Camp Shelby	Do.
Houston, Tex.	Camp Logan	Do.
Linda Vista, Cal.	Camp Kearney	Do.
Little Rock, Ark.	Camp Pike	National Army
Louisville, Ky.	Camp Zachary Taylor	Do.
Macon, Ga.	Camp Wheeler	National Guard
Montgomery, Ala.	Camp Sheridan	Do.
Palo Alto, Cal.	Camp Fremont	Do.
Petersburg, Va.	Camp Lee	National Army
Rockford, Ill.	Camp Grant	Do.
Spartanburg, S. C.	Camp Wadsworth	National Guard
Waco, Tex.	Camp McArthur	Do.
Wrightstown, N. J.	Camp Dix	National Army
Yaphank, Long Island, N. Y.	Camp Upton	Do.

Q.—What is the size of the average American cantonment?

A.—A camp accommodating 37,000 men is about two miles in length and one and a half miles in breadth. Each camp contains about 1,600 buildings, the construction of which requires 34,000,000 square feet of lumber. For heating and lighting these camps, 400 miles of electric wiring and 60 miles of heating pipes were required.

Q.—Has a decision been given on the constitutionality of the Selective Draft Law?

A.—Yes. The United States Supreme Court on January 7, 1918, passed seven cases arising under the selective draft law and decided adversely to the men drafted.

Q.—What total number of Americans are subject to draft?

A.—There are estimated to be in the United States (in round numbers) 10,000,000 men between the ages of 21 and 30 inclusive. This number represents very nearly 10 per cent of the estimated population of the country—between 103,000,000 and 104,000,000. The figure (10,000,000) is reached by taking the number of males between the ages of 21 and 30 inclusive, on the date of the last census, April 15, 1910, and on July 1, 1917. The figures for the later date are estimated on the assumption that the annual numerical increase since 1910 in each state has been the same as the average annual numerical increase between 1900 and 1910.

Q.—How many registrants under the first draft were called?

A.—The total number of registrants was 9,586,508. Of these 3,082,949, or 32.16 per cent were called by the various registration boards. Those not called numbered 6,503,550, or 67.84 per cent of the total number of men between the ages of 21 to 30 who registered under the law. A total of 1,057,363 men were certified for service and 687,000 were named in the first call.

Q.—How many of the men called by the first draft failed to appear?

A.—The total number of men called to colors was 9,586,508. Of these 252,294 failed to appear.

Q.—Were many drafted men rejected at the camps?

A.—The percentage of rejections at camp varied between 0.72 per cent and 11.87 per cent, and, as the physical conditions of the men from the different regions cannot account for this, it is attributed to differences in strictness in the examinations by the camp surgeons.

The valuable mass of data now latent in the record has not been studied in its entirety. But of 10,000 men spread over eight camps, the sources of defect showing the largest percentages were eyes, teeth, hernia, ears, heart disease and tuberculosis in the order given.

Q.—What proportion of men went unwillingly?

A.—"The actual state of mind, of course, cannot be known," says General Crowder, "but the filing of an unsuccessful claim for exemption or discharge is, at least, an index of unwillingness, and figures show that of the 1,057,363 certified for service, those who filed no claims for exemption were 639,054, or 60.44 per cent —the 'involuntary' conscripts being 418,309, or 39.56 per cent."

Q.—How many aliens were drafted?

A.—A total number of 1,243,801 were registered. Of these, 772,744 were Allied aliens, 148,274 were neutral aliens, 40,663 were enemy aliens, and 282,120 were allies of enemy aliens. The number called was 457,713, and of this 76,545 were finally accepted for service—only 17 in a hundred.

Q.—Is a man subject to draft if he becomes thirty-one before the draft call?

A.—This provision of the act reads, "Persons shall be subject to registration who shall have attained their 21st birthday and who shall not have attained their 31st birthday on or before the day set for the registration, and all persons so registered shall be and remain subject to draft."

Q.—How many unmarried physically fit men become twenty-one years of age each year?

A.—The number of males arriving at the age of 21 each year is estimated to be 960,000. As shown by the percentages of acceptance in the first draft, this estimated proportion of those unmarried and physically fit will be 96 per cent unmarried, and 76.3 per cent fit physically.

Q.—Is the class of draftable persons to be enlarged?

A.—The following suggestions have been made by a majority of the boards: that young men who are under age should come within the law when they reach the minimum draft age; that young men of 18 or 19 years should be enrolled and trained so as to be ready for service immediately upon attaining draft age; 19 and 34 are the limits most frequently suggested, though some recommend 40 to 45 years as the upper limit. There is a distinctly stronger demand for raising the maximum age than for lowering the minimum. Provost Marshal General Crowder, discussing the enlargement of the age limits for selective military service said,

early in 1918, that such suggestons had been made in his report to the Secretary of War.

Q.—How many claims for exemption were granted in the first draft?

A.—Of the total number of men called for registration by the first draft (about 3 million) 1,560,570, or 50.62 per cent, made claims for exemption. Of this number, 77.86 per cent were granted. 895,-150, or 73.99 per cent, were on the grounds of dependency; 228,452, or 19.67 per cent, were on the grounds of alienage; 3,877, or 0.34 per cent, were on religious grounds, and 2,001, or 0.17 per cent, were decided on grounds of moral unfitness.

The state having the highest percentage of claims allowed was Connecticut, and the lowest was Mississippi.

Q.—What percentage of men are physically fit?

A.—Using the results of the draft law as a basis, it is estimated that 76.3 per cent are physically fit. Of all the men called for physical examination by the draft, 730,756, or 23.7 per cent, were rejected on account of physical deficiencies.

Q.—Were all the citizens in the first draft sent to the camps at once?

A.—No. They were sent in increments, and early in 1918 72,000 men still remained to be assigned to cantonments. The full strength of men contemplated in the first draft was 687,000. The assignment of the full quota to camps was finished March, 1918.

Q.—Did the draft prove country boys superior to city boys?

A.—The common belief that the average of physical soundness is higher among country boys than among the city bred was not supported by the records of the selective draft.

For the purpose of comparison, selection was made of a typical set of cities of 40,000 to 500,000 population distributed over ten different states, and a corresponding set of counties of the same total size, located in the same states and containing no city of 30,000 population.

The total number of registrants in the two areas was 315,000.

The comparison resulted as follows: Of 35,017 registrants in urban areas, 9,969 were rejected. Of 44,462 registrants from rural areas, 12,432 were rejected. In other words, 28.47 per cent of the city boys were rejected against 27.96 per cent of the country boys.

Q.—How are local draft boards compensated?

A.—Section 195, Selective Service Regulation was repealed January 30th, 1918, and in lieu thereof the following was promulgated by the President: Section 195 (Amended) Local Boards—Compensation:

"The rate of compensation for members of local boards up to and including the completion of the final classification of the registrants within the respective jurisdiction of said boards shall be on the basis of 30 cents as aggregate compensation to the membership of a local board for each registrant to whom a questionnaire shall have been mailed and who shall have been finally classified in accordance with the provisions of these regulations.

"Money due for said work shall be paid in proportionate amounts to each member of a local board claiming compensation for his service, unless it shall be requested by the unanimous vote of the local board that the moneys due should be paid in some other proportion. In such case no one member shall receive more than 15 cents of the allowance of 30 cents for each classification, and no two members shall receive more than 25 cents for each classification to be distributed between them."

Q.—What was the cost of the first selective draft?

A.—The total cost of the first selective draft was $5,211,965.38. The number of registrants was 9,586,508, and the number of men called for examination was 3,082,-949. The cost per man called was $1.69. The number of men who were accepted was 1,057,363, making the cost per man finally accepted $4.93.

Q.—What was the cost of Civil War recruiting?

A.—General James B. Fry, Provost Marshal General, in a report, March 17, 1866, said that the cost of recruiting men in the Civil War was $11,027,751.21 for 168,649 men drafted, or $9.84 per man, as against the cost per capita of the 1917 selective draft $4.93, making the Civil War system much higher. The money value of Civil War days also was much lower than now.

Q.—Are answers made by draft registrants open to public inspection?

A.—The answers of any registrant concerning the condition of his health, mental or physical, in response to Series II of the questions under the head entitled "Physical Fitness," in the Questionnaire, and other evidence and records upon the same subject and the answers of any registrant to the questions under Series X of the questions under the head entitled "Dependency" in the Questionnaire, except the names and addresses of the persons claimed to be dependent upon such registrant, shall not, without the consent of the registrant, be open to inspection by any person other than members of local and district boards, examining physicians, members of Medical Advisory Boards, Government Appeal Agents, and other persons connected with the administration of the selective service law, and United States Attorneys and their assistants, and officials of such bureaus or departments of the United States Government as may be designated by the Secretary of War.

Q.—May a man subject to draft go abroad?

A.—If a person is subject to draft, he does not need a passport from the State Department, if he wants to go to Canada. In that case he only needs a "permit" from a local board. For any other country, he must apply to the local board for a permit. The local board investigates the case. If the person is not likely to be called within the period of the proposed absence, or if the board is otherwise assured that favorable action will not result in evasion of or interference with the execution of the law, the local board takes from the applicant his address while absent and issues a permit, which, if approved by the Provost Marshal General, entitles him to a passport from the State Department.

Q.—What are the rules as to physical unfitness?

A.—Physical deficiencies must be present in such degree as clearly and unmistakably to disqualify the man for military service. Much is left to the physician's final judgment and discretion.

Temporary effects of acute disease or of an injury are not regarded as justifying a finding that the person so affected is not physically qualified for military service. Such conditions justify a reasonable delay in completing the physical examination in order that an opportunity for recovery may be afforded. If the deficiency is of such a nature that the service in the army will improve the physical condition of the selected man in general and eliminate the deficiency, the man is selected, entrained, and put into such kind of service as best fits his case.

Q.—Can a drafted man demand that he be sent to France?

A.—No registrant under the provision of the selective service law (and no voluntary enlisted man) can make any condition that affects his service after he has been selected or after he has been accepted for entrainment. The United States will not make any "proviso" to send any soldier or sailor anywhere at any time stipulated by the selected man or the volunteer. This rule applies to combatant and non-combatant service alike (for instance Red Cross).

Q.—How long after war will drafted men be held?

A.—It is reasonable to assume that enlisted and drafted men will not be held any longer in the service of the United States than is necessary for the safety of the country, and that soldiers and sailors will be sent home as quickly as demobilization can be effected after the war. The "Selective Service Law" provides that the selected men shall remain liable only four months after the conclusion of peace.

Q.—Are skilled technical workers exempt from military service?

A.—There are circumstances in which the need of military establishments for men expert or highly skilled is such that the national interest is better served by selecting such men into military service. The engagement in industry and agriculture is no reason for exemption.

Q.—Is a man whose wife can support herself and children exempt from draft?

A.—The "Selective Service Law" exempts no person from military service on the ground of dependency. It only authorizes the exclusion or discharge from draft of "those in a status with respect to persons dependent upon them for support which renders their exclusion or discharge advisable."

Q.—What can a person under age do if he registers by mistake?

A.—He should report the case immediately to the local board. The board will investigate the claim that he is under age, and, if he is right, the local board is empowered to discharge him.

Q.—Will the draft boards accept a man before his turn comes?

A.—The men to be ordered into military service by a local board in filling any part of its quota are to be selected in the order of their liability within their class as shown on the classification list, including non-combatants. Any registrant whose order number is so early that, though not within the early part of the quota, he is within the total quota, may make application to the local board to be ordered into military service and entrained with that part of the quota of the local board to be sent next after such application.

If the granting of the application would increase the number ordered by the Adjutant General to be entrained by more than two men, the application will be denied.

Q.—What will exempt from prosecution a man who failed to register?

A.—Being at sea on registration day and registering as soon as practical after landing, or when the person had been refused the opportunity to register by the local boards.

Q.—Is a sailor of the Lakes merchant fleet likely to be drafted?

A.—The sailors on ships plying the Great Lakes come under Class IV. They are, therefore, far removed from the first call. It must be borne in mind that the grain-carriers on the Great Lakes are indispensable for the feeding of the nation, and their crews are employed in a vocation necessary to the pursuance of the war.

Q.—Who are subject to the second call?

A.—The second summons to service under the Selective Service Act of May 18, 1917, was issued by the President in November, 1917. No change was made in the essential obligations of the men who were, on June 5, subject to selection.

Q.—Is a drafted man regarded as a deserter if he fails to report for the camps?

A.—Persons who are selected for military service and who absent themselves with an intent to evade military service are deserters.

They are reported to the police authorities and, if caught, are brought before the local board, which decides if the offense was willful or not. If *not* willful, the selected man is sent to a camp and the commanding officers of the camp furnished with all details of the case. If the offense is considered willful, the deserter becomes subject to the military laws of the United States.

Q.—How are drafted men sent to the camps?

A.—Local boards procure one "party ticket" for the number of men who are to be sent. A leader is provided for the party. He keeps in his personal possession the railroad and meal tickets of the party. He accompanies the conductor through the train, identifies the men of his party and, before delivering the ticket to the railroad agent or conductor, must indorse the ticket as to the correct number of the men to whom transportation is furnished.

The leader is responsible for the proper feeding of the party, and may not allow liquor to be sold to any of his men. Before arrival at a mobilization camp he must inspect them to see that they are ready to leave the train, and that each man has attached to his lapel the badge given to him before starting. On arrival at the camp, the leader must hold his own group together until they are taken in charge by an officer or a non-commissioned officer, in whose hands he must safely deliver the mobilization papers of each and all of his men.

Q.—How does the Government find out about a drafted man in a foreign country?

A.—Either before or upon receiving a notice to report for physical examination, a registrant residing in a foreign country in a place too far for a journey to the United States may, at his own expense, apply by mail, cable or telegram to be physically examined by a nearby physisian appointed by the American Consul to make the examination. The consul must indorse his appointment upon the face of a "Form" sent to him by the local board in the United States residence of

the applicant. The examination is made, the physician signs a detailed report, and the local board decides as to the physical qualifications of the registrant.

Q.—Can a man appeal from the decision of a district board?

A.—The decision of the district board is, in ordinary circumstances, *final.* A person may appeal to the President in industrial and agricultural cases, when the appeal is accompanied by the written and signed recommendation of one member of the local board, and either the Government Appeal Agent or the Adjutant General of the State.

In dependency cases, the appeal must be accompanied by a signed statement of one member of the local board and either the Government Appeal Agent or an Adjutant General of the State certifying that the case is one of great and unusual hardship, stating the circumstances of hardship that will follow the going of the registrant into military service, and specifically recommending a reconsideration of the case.

The claim is examined first by the local board as to the compliance with the above rules, after which the local board forwards the claim to the Provost Marshal General. The President may rule, upon record of the case, that the appeal shall operate as a stay of induction into military service, pending further orders.

Q.—How is any insufficient quota filled?

A.—Immediately after the time of entrainment the local board must proceed to call and entrain a sufficient number of selected men to fill the deficiency, if any, in its quota.

Upon receipt of notice from the mobilization camp that any selected men of the contingent of a local board have been rejected, or, though entrained, have failed to reach such camp, the local board proceeds to call and entrain a sufficient number of selected men to fill vacancies in its quota. Men sent to fill deficiencies get at least 24 hours' notice to appear for entrainment.

Q.—Are feeble-minded persons exempt?

A.—There are various degrees of feeble-mindedness. The Selective Service Law says that "lack of normal understanding" is a cause for rejection. What is meant by normal understanding is left in each case to the discretion of the examining physicians.

Insanity, epilepsy, and organic nervous diseases are causes of rejection.

Q.—Do men with bad teeth need to serve under the draft?

A.—A man must have at least eight serviceable, natural masticating molars, four above and four below opposing, and six serviceable natural incisors, three above and three below opposing. These teeth must be so opposed that a person can cut his food and chew it.

Teeth restored by crown or fixed bridge work, when such work is well placed and thoroughly serviceable, are considered as serviceable natural teeth.

If dental work will restore the teeth to meet the requirements outlined in the preceding paragraph, the man will be accepted and sent to his cantonment, where dental work needed by him will be carried out.

Q.—Is a man previously rejected by the Regular Army exempt?

A.—Previous physical examinations are not considered valid in any case where the Selective Service Law is involved.

Q.—How about defective eyesight?

A.—In this case, the local board can rule that eyeglasses will correct the deficiency in vision. Men may be accepted, whose vision is 20/100 or better in each eye, correctable by appropriate lenses to 20/40 or better in at least one eye, provided no organic disease exists in either eye.

Q.—Which officials are exempt from draft?

A.—The Secretary to the President, heads of divisions of the various departments of the government, members of Presidential boards, Interstate Commissions, Civil Service Commission, Federal Reserve Board, Federal Trade Commission, Panama Canal Chief Officers, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, the Public Printer, Officers of the National Homes for Disabled Volunteers, Director General of the Pan-American Union, Vice-President of the United States, Senators, Secretary, Sergeant-at-Arms, and Chaplain of the Senate.

Representatives, Territorial Delegates, Resident Commissioners, Clerk, Doorkeeper, Sergeant-at-Arms, Postmaster and

Chaplain of the House of Representatives, the Superintendent of the Capitol.

Librarian and the Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds of the Library of Congress.

Judges, Clerks, Marshals and Reporters of the Supreme Court, the Court of Claims, Court of Customs Appeals, Circuit Courts of Appeals, District Courts.

Q.—Can a man be exempted on religious grounds?

A.—Any registrant found by a local board to be a member of any well-recognized religious sect or organization, organized and existing May 18, 1917, whose then existing creed or principles forbid its members to participate in war in any form, and whose religious convictions are against war or participation therein in accordance with the creed or principles of said religious organizations, may be furnished by the local board with a certificate to that effect and he can be required to serve only in a capacity declared by the President to be non-combatant.

Q.—Can a farmer claim exemption from draft?

A.—Any registrant found to be engaged in a "necessary" agricultural enterprise, and found to be "necessary" to such enterprise in the capacity of sole managing, controlling, and directing head of the enterprise, may be exempted.

Q.—Will the draft law continue in effect after peace is made?

A.—The "Selective Service Law" (draft law) is framed only "for the period of the war." The men selected are liable for that period, and for four months after peace is signed.

Q.—Is an alien who has taken out his first citizenship papers subject to draft?

A.—By the Act entitled: "An Act to authorize the President to increase temporarily the Military Establishment of the United States," approved May 18, 1917, the President was authorized "to draft into the Military Service of the United States, all male citizens or male persons, *not alien enemies*, who have declared their intention to become citizens, between the ages of 21 and 30 years, both inclusive." This authorizes the drafting of all aliens other than German and Austrian.

Q.—Are alien enemies exempt from registration?

A.—Many persons confuse registration with draft. Each is a distinct process. Exemptions are granted after draft and not before. Even convicts and alien enemies (both of whom are exempt from draft) are obliged to register. There are no exceptions to the rule that all male persons in the United States between the ages of 21 and 30 inclusive must register, except those already in the Federal Military or Naval Service.

Q.—What was the Alien Draft Bill?

A.—It was a bill introduced by Senator Chamberlain in 1917 to draft into the Army aliens resident in the United States, and it was in response to a general demand that British, French, Italian and other subjects of the Allied Powers be obliged to give military service as American citizens did.

The bill was not pressed, because the State Department feared that it might lead to a great dispute about treaties, and impel Allied Powers to impress Americans then resident in their territories. The State Department, however, immediately began diplomatic negotiations with the Allies.

Q.—Was it intended to impress Germans and Austrians to fight their countries?

A.—No. Such a suggestion was never even entertained. They were specifically excepted in the bill, and a clause provided that they might be drafted for non-combatant work only. The chief purpose was to draft those Nationals on whose side the United States was fighting.

Q.—Were there so many of these aliens?

A.—Senator Chamberlain estimated that the bill would bring 1¼ million men into the service.

Q.—Did the Allied governments do anything about these "Slackers"?

A.—The British authorities acted circumspectly and skilfully. They issued a great many cleverly worded declarations, which voiced the conviction that all British subjects would gladly volunteer, but which also hinted positively that if they failed to do so they would be drafted.

Q.—Could the United States not compel them to serve?

A.—Not under existing treaties. The Administration, however, realized from the beginning that the American people, subject to the draft themselves, would object strongly to immunity of Allied subjects, and diplomatic negotiations began at once with the Allied governments.

Q.—Were agreements made finally to draft them?

A.—The conclusion of an agreement with Great Britain and Canada was announced January 30, 1918, through a letter written by the Secretary of State to Vice-President Marshall as President of the Senate. The important provision of this agreement was that subjects of Great Britain or Canada were to have a stated time in which they might return to their own countries to serve. If they remained in this country beyond that time they would come under American draft regulations.

Q.—Can America draft British subjects even if outside American age limits?

A.—Yes. By the American-British agreement, it was provided that British subjects drafted by the United States should be drafted between the British limits, which take in men of twenty and men up to forty-one years old, while the American age limit is from twenty-one up to thirty years.

Q.—How many British subjects in America had not volunteered in 1917?

A.—It was estimated by various British authorities late in 1917 that there were about 200,000 British subjects in the United States who would come under the draft.

Q.—Are women alien enemies?

A.—The term "alien enemy," as at present defined by statute, includes all natives, citizens, denizens, or subjects of a foreign nation or government with which war has been declared, being males of the age of fourteen years and upward who shall be within the United States and not actually naturalized as American citizens.

Females are not alien enemies within the present statutory definition; but a recent regulation under the Espionage Act has extended its provisions to them.

Q.—Is an alien who has taken out first citizenship papers classed as an alien enemy?

A.—The Department of Justice authorizes the statement under the definition of alien enemy, Section 3: "A male native, citizen, denizen or subject of a foreign nation or government with which war has been declared is an alien enemy, even though he has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States by taking out first papers of naturalization or has been partly or completely naturalized in any country other than the United States." Thus a German who had, let us say, become a citizen of Mexico (a neutral country) would still be considered an alien enemy.

Q.—What is the best way to send presents to France?

A.—Money may be sent at domestic rates, payable at a "United States Mail Agency in France." In drawing order the office of payment should be designated as "U. S. Army Postal Service," and in the coupon the name of the payee should be followed on the next line by the regiment and company, or other organization to which the payee belongs.

All articles admissible to the domestic parcel post may be sent to the Expeditionary Forces overseas, if carefully packed and properly addressed, and if they do not include intoxicants, poisons, inflammable articles (including friction matches), or compositions which may kill or injure another or damage the mails.

Regimental commanders must endorse requests for transmission of parcels.

Q.—How does America protect its soldiers financially?

A.—The government provides a compensation of $25 a month to the wife (during widowhood), child, or widowed mother of any man killed or permanently disabled in the line of duty.

In addition, Congress authorized, on October 6, 1917, the offering of insurance, secured by the government, to all officers, enlisted men, and members of the nurse corps in the Army and Navy who should apply before February 12, 1918 (this time being afterwards extended to April 12th)—or within 120 days after enlistment.

Q.—Are all soldiers eligible to government insurance?

A.—This bill makes all officers and men in both branches of the service eligible.

The policies range from $1,000 to $10,000, and the age limit is 15 to 65. The premium is based on age; a man of 30 on a $1,000 policy pays 69 cents a month, etc. The policy is payable in monthly instalments to the insured, if wholly disabled, and to the heirs, at his death.

Q.—What are the Government Insurance provisions?

A.—Annual renewable term insurance for the period of the war, with the option of changing to some other form within five years after the close of the war. It was not attachable or assignable.

Each $1,000 gave $5.75 a month for 20 years to the beneficiary—who might be wife, husband, child, grandchild, brother, sister, adopted brother or sister, step-brother or sister, parent, grandparent, step-parent or parent-in-law.

The amount taken could be from $1,000 to $10,000, the premium ranging from 65 cents a month for each $1,000 at the age of 21, to 70 cents at 31, 82 cents at 41, and so on.

Q.—Was protection limited to injuries in line of duty?

A.—No. It was unlimited by any such provision. Even those who might leave the service could still carry it—with the condition that within five years after the close of the war they must change to another form.

Q.—Did the men take advantage of the insurance offer?

A.—They did so enthusiastically that by February 18th over a million men had been insured for a total of $8,879,104,000; and the indications were that the entire military force would improve upon the unheard-of record already made of being nearly 90 per cent insured for the maximum amount.

CONSCRIPTION ABROAD

Q.—When was conscription adopted in the German Empire?

A.—The German Empire has always had conscription, but this Empire did not come into existence until 1871. Prussia adopted conscription early in the nineteenth century, and Napoleon was directly responsible for her action. After the battle of Jena, where the Prussian power was utterly broken by the French, Napoleon endeavored to crush Prussia altogether, and limited her to a standing army of 42,000 men, besides imposing heavy indemnities. The arrangement concerning the army was cleverly taken advantage of by the famous Generals Scharnhorst and Gneisenau. They kept, it is true, a standing army of only 42,000 men, but the personnel was changed continually. Directly one lot was trained they were disbanded and passed into the reserves and another lot entered the army. This method was known as the *Krumper* system, and is practically conscription as it is known today.

Q.—Is German conscription universal?

A.—By law, every able-bodied man is liable for military service in Germany. In practice, however, as there are in ordinary times far more young men than are actually wanted, a big percentage does not serve at all. It is said that 2,000,000 of these untrained men volunteered for active service during the first month of the war. By passing an examination, any German can have his training cut down from two years to one. That is to say, a well-educated German seldom serves for more than twelve months consecutively. Roughly, of the able-bodied men available, 50 per cent never enter the army at all. Of the remainder who are conscripted, 20 per cent serve for one year, and 80 per cent for two.

Q.—Is the position the same in France?

A.—No. Practically every available man receives military training, and, under the new law, brought in just before the present struggle began, every one must serve for three years with the army instead of for two as formerly. France, in fact, far more fulfils the description of "a nation in arms" than does Germany.

Q.—How long must a German serve?

A.—Two years with the army in the ranks and five in the reserve. During the period of reserve the soldier is still regarded as belonging to his corps, and is obliged to join it twice during the five years. The duration of training during the entire period is limited by law to eight weeks, but in practice is seldom more than six. After the five years are up the soldier joins the first "ban" of the *Landwehr*, or Second Line Army. While in the first "ban," he is twice called out for training for from eight to fourteen days on each occasion. Five years after entering it he leaves the first "ban," and joins the second "ban," where he remains until he is 39. Finally, he passes into the *Landsturm*, and at 45 passes out of military control altogether.

Q.—Are all the men in the Landsturm trained?

A.—No. Only those who at 39 enter it from the *Landwehr*. It also contains all the men from the ages of 20 to 45, who have received no military training at all. These amount to 50 per cent of the fit men of military age.

Q.—In what countries, before the outbreak of the war, was conscription in force?

A.—In all European countries except Great Britain. The only one, however, which had really universal conscription was France, where practically the only exemptions granted were to those physically unfit. In Germany not half the available men were conscripted. In Russia the supply far exceeded requirements, and many special exemptions were granted. In Holland, selection from those available is made by lot. Somewhat the same system is adopted in Sweden. Switzerland and Norway have a scheme similar to the Australian; in fact, the Commonwealth Defence Act, providing for the training of cadets, was, to some extent, based upon the Swiss plan. In the Balkan States there are comparatively few exemptions, most of the available men being obliged to serve in the army. In Italy, although all men are liable, only about a third receive two years' military training. In Spain there are many

exemptions, and a money payment in lieu of active service is permitted. The same system exists in Portugal.

Q.—When was conscription adopted in France?

A.—During the French Revolution the principle was adopted. On July 11, 1792, every able-bodied man was ordered to consider himself liable for active service, but the enforcing of the law was so imperfect that barely 60,000 were gained. It was not until August of the following year that real conscription was forced on the country. All able-bodied men between 18 and 25 were compelled to serve. No exemptions whatever were granted. In 1798 the law was modified to include only the able-bodied between the ages of 20 and 25, and the right of exemption by payment of a substitute was conceded. This scheme remained in force until the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, after which the Prussian method was adopted.

Q.—How many young men does France call to the colors every year?

A.—Compulsory military service begins at 21, and about 320,000 men have to report themselves on reaching that age every year. Of these, about 33,000 failed (in peace time) to pass the medical examination. About 25,000 enlisted voluntarily, 70,000 were put back for re-examination, and about 160,000 were incorporated in the army.

Q.—Is conscription in force in any country outside Europe?

A.—In Japan, in Australia (for home defense), in New Zealand, in the Union of South Africa (in a modified form), in Turkey, and in several of the South American Republics. In Peru the numbers are obtained by ballot, and exemption can be purchased. In Chile there are few exemptions allowed. The army there has been trained by German officers. In Argentine, service in the military is compulsory, but the majority train for three months only.

Q.—How long had conscription been in force in Russia?

A.—It was introduced in 1874, after the Franco-Prussian War. At first a six-years' service was required, but this had been reduced to three in the infantry and to four in the cavalry and artillery. There were many exemptions, however.

Q.—Were the French on Gallipoli conscripts or volunteers?

A.—They would certainly have been conscripts, though some of them may have been conscripted men who volunteered for that particular campaign. That is to say, volunteers may have been called for, and may have offered from various regiments; but the numbers required would have been obtained in any case whether there were volunteers or not. You are probably thinking of the French Colonial Army, which is recruited by voluntary enlistment. In times of peace, 27,500 men of this army are permanently maintained in France. In addition, 18,000 French soldiers of this army are in the colonies, and 35,000 native troops. Algeria is garrisoned by 40,000 men of the regular or "conscript" army, and 27,000 native conscripted troops.

Q.—How has Australia voted on conscription?

A.—The first referendum on conscription was held in October, 1916. The majority against conscription was 61,000. The second referendum was held on Dec. 20, 1917, and resulted in a vote of 1,013,000 for and 1,178,000 against, the majority against conscription being 165,000.

Q.—Is it true that German schoolboys are forced to take long route marches?

A.—The military authorities have nothing whatever to do with German boys. They do not exert as much authority over school-pupils, in fact, as is exerted under the Australian system. In Australia a boy has to register himself for military training when he is 13, and he remains in effect, if not in deed, subject to military control until he reaches the age of 60. In Germany conscription begins only when the youth reaches the age of 20.

Q.—Then why do we hear of boys of 17 and even 16 in the trenches?

A.—There probably are few of 16. There may be a few of 17, and, no doubt, there are numbers of 18 years old. But, as the German Army laws have not been changed, it is altogether likely that these youthful soldiers have not been conscripted, but have volunteered for service. It is true that liability (Wehrpflicht) begins at the age of 17, and ends at 45, but actual service (Heerpflicht) begins at 20. When he is twenty every man re-

ceives a notice from the military ordering him to report himself at such and such a place at specified time. He is then examined medically, and drafted into the army, put back for a year for re-examination at the end of twelve months, or passed definitely into the *Landsturm*, where he receives no military training at all.

Q.—Are all able-bodied persons liable to serve for the defense of Australia?

A.—Yes. They are called up in classes, as follows:

Class I.—All men from 18 to 34 who are unmarried.

Class II.—All men from 35 to 44 who are unmarried.

Class III.—All men from 18 to 34 who are married.

Class IV.—All men from 35 to 44 who are married.

Class V.—All men, married or single, from 45 to 59.

Q.—What classes are exempt under the Universal Service Act in Australia?

A.—The Commonwealth Universal Service Act, which was in force before the war began, compels every male between the ages of 12 and 25 to attend a certain number of drills per year, and to spend a certain number of days in camp. Every male is liable for service, within Australia, up to the age of 60. Those exempt are: The medically unfit (the examination is not at all severe); members of Parliament (State and Federal); ministers of religion; judges (Federal and State); police, special and stipendiary magistrates; doctors, conscientious objectors, persons not of European origin or descent. The last three groups can, however, be called to render service of a non-combatant nature.

Q.—How many Australians of enlistment age are unmarried?

A.—When the census was taken there were approximately 477,000 unmarried men in the Commonwealth between the ages of 18 and 45.

Q.—What is the conscription age in Great Britain?

A.—In the new act the ages are fixed between 18 and 40 inclusive. Men who attain 18 after the act was passed have to serve, and men under 40 years and eleven months old are also liable. That is to say, every man who had not turned 41 within 30 days of the passing of the act must become a soldier.

Q.—What is the number of men who voluntarily enlisted in Great Britain?

A.—It does not appear that the figure ever has been given. It was generally assumed that before the Derby scheme was tried, some 2,600,000 had volunteered. When Lord Derby began his campaign, he calculated that there were 5,000,000 men left between the ages of 18 and 41. This total included men who had joined the navy, men who had been discharged from the army and from the navy, those who were physically unfit, those who had died since the register was taken, ministers of religion, and others who had not thought it necessary to go into a recruiting office. The Derby volunteers appear to have numbered 215,000; 2,000,000 men attested, 428,000 were rejected as medically unfit, and 1,600,000 were in "starred" trades. According to the published figures, 2,700,000 were unaccounted for. It was estimated at the time that conscription of the unmarried—which was the first measure tried—would bring in only some 200,000 men.

Q.—How many Australians are within the enlistment age (18-45)?

State	Total males.	No. of enlistment age.
N. S. W.	857,698	376,000
Victoria	655,591	268,000
Queensland	329,506	145,500
South Australia ..	207,358	90,500
West Australia	161,565	80,700
Tasmania	97,591	38,800
Total 2,309,309		999,500

These are the figures from the last census—1911.

Q.—Did conscientious objectors ever receive any consideration in conscript countries?

A.—No. They do not receive any at all; that is why people who have strong feelings in this matter have gone to England and to the United States, countries which did not compel everyone to serve in the army. During the American Civil War, when conscription was adopted by

the North, the Quakers, who had originally come to America in order to avoid persecution in England, were very harshly treated, and had to suffer as they have so often suffered elsewhere for their principles.

Q.—How were conscientious objectors regarded in England?

A.—*The Times* (London), no doubt, expresses the view of many people, and it is interesting to follow the change that has come over it:

"The essence of freedom, as we know it and value it, is that the individuals of a nation shall be able to think what they believe to be true, and to do what they believe to be right."—*Times* leading article, November 21, 1914.

"In war, even more than in peace, there is need for the free play of intelligence, for the free exercise of conscience."—*Times*, Literary Supplement, April, 1915.

"The third stage is to make conscientious objectors ineligible for the franchise and for public office. It seems to us to be a measure of simple justice that those who refuse to recognize the citizen's first duty should be excluded also from their privileges as citizens."—*Times*, July 6, 1916.

The Manchester Guardian better sets forth the way in which the conscientious objector should be regarded:

"The final test of sincerity is the willingness to face consequences, and the supreme test the perseverance to death. The conscientious objector has been mocked and flouted as a slacker and a coward. We think him a mistaken man, but we have never been in doubt that, in many cases, he is perfectly genuine in his views. We hope that people will now be satisfied that the conscientious objector may, at least, be what he professes to be, and is not necessarily a mere coward masquerading under a fine pretence."—*Manchester Guardian*, June 27, 1916.

Q.—Is it true that genuine conscientious objectors were tried by court-martial and sentenced to death?

A.—According to *The Daily News* report of the debate in the House of Commons, on Monday, June 26, 1915, 34 conscientious objectors were sent to France, after imprisonment in England. There they were sent to the front, and, refusing to obey orders, were formally court-martialed and sentenced to death. All sentences were, however, commuted to ten years' penal servitude. In some cases imprisonment for a lesser period was given. Among these men were four Quakers.

Q.—Have conscientious objectors been subjected to severe punishment?

A.—J. M. Robertson, in the House of Commons, replying on behalf of the Home Secretary to a question put by Ramsay McDonald, said: "I think we are agreed all round the House that some of the kinds of persecutions which have been inflicted on conscientious objectors are truly shocking."

Q.—If a Britisher in Germany marries a German, could Germany compel his sons to join the army?

A.—Not unless he became naturalized. The German law differs from the British. It is based upon the *jus sanguinis*, which regards the son as a citizen of the country of which the father is a citizen. The British law has as its basic principle the *jus soli*, and regards any person born in Great Britain as a British subject, even if his parents are both unnaturalized foreigners. Australia has the same law as Great Britain, consequently the son of an unnaturalized German born there would be regarded as an Australian subject.

Q.—Are married men with children conscripted in England?

A.—All married men up to the age of 40 have been conscripted, whether they have children or not. The separation allowances (weekly) granted are as follows:

Wife	12/6 ($3.12)
Wife and one child ..	17/6 ($4.37)
Wife and two children	21/- ($5.25)
Wife and 3 children	23/- ($5.75)
Wife and four children	25/- ($6.25)
Motherless children ..	5/- ($1.25)

These weekly allowances were granted in 1915. Pensions were increased. Widows got 5/- ($1.25) a week at first; this was increased to 7/6 ($1.87), and finally to 10/- ($2.50). The grant to a totally disabled soldier was increased from 15/- ($3.75) to 25/- ($6.25) a week. These increases added about $25,000,000 to the pensions' bill in 1915.

Q.—Does England protect drafted men's business interests?

A.—A Civil Liabilities Grant is made to tradesmen to enable them to close their shops temporarily and pay rent, taxes, etc., whilst on military service, and assure them a business to return to after the war, and security against their creditors. The maximum grant, however, is only £104 ($520), and many demands for increase have been made on the government, which refused, however, declaring that the experience of the Military Service Committee, after having dealt with nearly 250,000 applications, indicates that the present limit is rarely insufficient to meet cases of serious hardship.

Q.—What allowance does the wife of a French soldier get?

A.—While her husband is on service she is allowed 1.25 francs a day (a little less than 25 cents), and each child gets 50 centimes (about 10 cents). If the soldier has no wife, his mother or other dependent can get the 1.25 francs a day, and if he has no children a dependent may receive the 50 centimes the child would have had. This grant, however, is not made to everybody; it is only given in necessitous cases.

Q.—What is the pay of the Canadian soldier?

A.—The Canadian private receives 4s. 6d. ($1.12) a day, the New Zealander 5s. ($1.25).

Q.—What pay does a Russian soldier get?

A.—In peace time he gets 50 kopeks (about 27 cents) a month. In war time this is doubled, and thus he gets a rouble. His wife has an allowance given her of three roubles a month, and each child under fourteen gets a small amount, depending on its age. Nothing is given for children more than 14.

Q.—What pension goes to the widow of a Russian soldier killed in battle?

A.—She gets nothing at all. The three roubles a month is stopped also.

POPULATIONS AND RELIGIONS

Q.—What is the population of the United States?

A.—At the census of 1910 the total population was 91,972,266, of whom 81,732,000 were whites and 9,828,000 were negroes. The Indians numbered 308,000. The total foreign-born population was, in that year, 13,515,886. Of these, 2,501,181 had been born in Germany, 1,602,702 in Russia, 1,352,151 in Ireland 1,343,070 in Italy, 1,174,924 in Austria, 1,201,143 in Canada, 876,455 in England, and 665,183 in Sweden. The present population of the United States is estimated at a little more than 102,000,000.

Q.—How many native-born Germans and Austrians are in America?

A.—According to the Federal census of 1910 (the last official and authoritative enumeration made in the United States) there were the following native-born Austrians, Germans and Hungarians in the United States:—

Native Austrians	1,174,973
Native Germans	2,501,333
Native Hungarians	495,609
Total	4,171,915

Of native-born Americans, with one or both parents born in Germany or Austria-Hungary, there were at that time in the United States:—

Americans with one or both parents born in Austria....	826,635
Americans with one or both parents born in Germany...	5,781,437
Americans with one or both parents born in Hungary....	204,627
Total	6,812,699

This gives a total of native-born Germans and Austro-Hungarians and their children of the first generation of 10,984,614.

Q.—How many Germans were living in England when the war broke out?

A.—H. Samuel, on June 29, 1916, gave the following figures:—At the beginning of the war there were 75,000 Germans and Austrians living in the United Kingdom, excluding British-born wives, of whom there were 10,000 or 11,000. Children are not included in these figures. Of this total of 75,000, 21,000, principally women, were repatriated, or allowed to go to other countries; this left 54,000. Of these 32,000 had been interned, leaving 22,000 un-interned. Of the un-interned, 4,000 belong to friendly races, viz., Alsatians, Italians from the Trentino, Czechs, and the like.

Q.—How many Germans are there in Brazil?

A.—The total population of Brazil is not accurately known, but it is estimated at 24,400,000. Between 1820 and 1907 93,000 German immigrants reached the country, and there has been a slow influx since. In 1912, for instance, the immigrants from Germany numbered 5,773. Practically all the Germans live in the Southern provinces, and the total number of Brazilians of German parentage is estimated to be about 400,000. Sometimes, it is given as half a million.

Q.—Do the Germans live in separate communities?

A.—They live for the most part in separate communities, though there is considerable intermarriage. Their presence, and that of the Italians, who are still more numerous, has made the southern provinces of Brazil far the most prosperous.

Q.—Do they take much share in the government of the provinces where they dwell?

A.—They are most numerous in the province of Rio Grande do Sul, their number there being estimated at 250,000. "They form," says Lord Bryce, of Great Britain, "a compact community which preserves its national habits and manages its own affairs with little interference by the central Government. It is, in fact, disposed to resent any such interference, and to 'run things' in its own solid German way." Hiram Bingham, who is an English authority in South American matters, said in 1911: "The Germans in Southern Brazil are a negligible factor in international affairs, but the well-educated young German who is being sent out to capture South America commercially is a power to be reckoned with. He is going to damage Eng-

land more truly than dreadnaughts or gigantic airships."

Q.—It is said that for ten years there had been 400,000 German Reservists in Rio Grande do Sul and Sao Paulo. Is that so?

A.—The number of people of German descent in Brazil is less than half a million, according to official statements by the Brazilian Government. This being the case, it is impossible that there could be anything like 400,000 Germans of fighting age there. The immigration of Germans—men, women and children—into Brazil during the last ten years has averaged less than 4,000 per annum. These figures would appear still further to minimize any possible number of reservists—that is, men trained in the German army.

Q.—What is the birth rate in the fighting countries?

A.—In 1912, it was 19 per thousand. The death rate was 17.5. Even in the first six months of 1914, there were no less than 17,000 fewer births in France than there were deaths. Since the war began the number of marriages has fallen off greatly. For the last six months of 1914, these totalled only 43,585, as against 122,754 for the last six months of 1913. This is a decrease of no less than 65 per cent! From April to August, 1915, there were one-fifth fewer births in the 26 largest German cities than during the same time in 1914. The British Registrar-General reports that the birth rate in Great Britain for the second quarter of 1915 was the lowest since civil registration was established.

Q.—Is the French population chiefly agricultural or industrial?

A.—More than one-sixth of the whole population is engaged normally in manufacturing industry. This is without counting those engaged in affairs closely related to manufactures, such as mining, quarrying, transportation, etc. Counting these in, the total represents almost one-fifth of the population. The Frenchmen engaged in commerce number less than one-half of those in manufacturing industries. The people engaged in agriculture and forestry represent another one-fifth of the total population. Thus agriculture and manufacture lead about evenly in France. A curious fact is that less than 2 per cent of the population is enumerated as among the "liberal professions," meaning law, medicine, literature, art, etc.

Q.—Has the German birth-rate fallen while infantile death-rates increase?

A.—Official figures are not obtainable, but the following are said to be accurate:—

Year.	Births.	Infant deaths.
1913	1,839,000	277,000
1914	1,820,000	207,000
1915	1,416,000	216,000
1916	1,103,000	167,000

These figures would show that the infantile death rate has not increased, but has remained pretty constant at about 15.1 per cent of the new births. But the decrease in births is striking and it would indicate the war has heavily checked the nation's normal increase of population.

Q.—What were the comparative rates in Germany before war?

A.—The falling off of the birth rate had begun to cause concern. In Dresden, for example, the figures were: 1903, deaths, 8,570; births, 15,423. In 1913 the proportion had changed to deaths, 7,329; births, 11,297. In 1915 there was a further change in proportion: deaths, 6,406; births, 7,371.

Thus, while the births were in excess of deaths each year, the ratio of births as against deaths showed a steady decline.

It is obvious that the war will have changed this proportion still more and much for the worse.

Q.—What is the population of Spain?

A.—20,330,000. The country is rather sparsely peopled—only 104 to the square mile. In Germany there are 324, in the United Kingdom 378. Holland, with 6,200,000 inhabitants, has 493 to the square mile. Norway, with a population of 2,416,000, has a density of only 19, but Sweden's 5,960,000 dwell 32 to the square mile. Switzerland is a very small country, but manages to get 239 people to the square mile, and has a population of 3,830,000. Only 2,780,000 people live in Denmark. The land is poor, but intensely cultivated, there being 180 folk to the square mile.

Q.—What is the population of Russia?

A.—The Russian Empire has about 170,000,000 inhabitants. Of these 27,000,000 live in Asia. There are, of course, very many races in Russia, but the Slavs predominate. They mostly belong to the Greek Church. About 11,000,000 Mohammedans, 12,000,000 Roman Catholics, 6,000,000 Jews, are the other notable religious bodies. It is estimated that only 50,000,000 Russians can read and write; the rest are illiterate.

Q.—Which country has the largest birth rate?

A.—Russia (44 per thousand), but Roumania and Bulgaria run her close. Following these come Hungary (36.3), Japan (33.9), Italy (32.4), Austria (31.3), German Empire (28.3), Commonwealth of Australia (28.3), Holland (28.1), Scotland (25.9), England and Wales (23.8), Ireland (23.0), Belgium (22.9), France (19.0).

Q.—Are the death rates in much the same proportion?

A.—Not the same. Russia is highest (28.9), but France (17.5), is nowhere near the bottom of the table. Germany is 15.6, England and Wales 13.3.

Q.—What is the population of Scotland?

A.—At the last census, in 1911, it was 4,760,904. Particulars of the number of volunteers from Scotland are not obtainable, but it is known that when it came to conscription it was found that but few available men were left. The great majority had already joined the colors.

Q.—What is the exact population of Japan, and what that of China?

A.—The number of persons in Japan and her dependencies, including Korea, is estimated at 73,440,000, which works out at 279 per square mile. The population of China and dependencies is estimated at 320,650,000, only 82 people to the square mile. The number of people in Japan proper, in 1910, was 50,750,000. Some 1,700,000 babies are born there every year. In Russia it is interesting to note that the number of births in 1912 was estimated at more than 7,000,000.

Q.—Is the population of Japan increasing rapidly?

A.—The annual increase is 600,000 (births 1,700,000, deaths 1,110,000). That of the United Kingdom is about 400,000; that of France about 20,000. In Germany the surplus of births over deaths was about 900,000 every year. In Russia the annual increase was no less than 2,500,000. In Austria it was 300,000, and in Hungary 250,000, that is, 550,000 for the whole of the dual empire. The Bulgarians are a most prolific race, the balance of births over deaths being about 85,000 annually.

Q.—What is the German-born population of Australia?

A.—According to Mr. Knibbs, 32,990. The same authority states that 590,722 people who were born in the United Kingdom are now in the Commonwealth—20,775 Chinese, 14,775 Scandinavians, 6,644 British Indians, 6,719 Italians, 6,642 Americans.

Q.—Does life, morally, in Germany, compare unfavorably with other great Powers?

A.—The figures are interesting. The following table gives the number of illegitimate births per thousand births in different countries for the quinquennial period, 1901-1905:—

Netherlands	23
Ireland	26
England and Wales	40
South Australia	41
West Australia	42
Spain	44
New Zealand	45
*Switzerland	45
Italy	56
*Tasmania	57
Scotland	64
Queensland	65
*Finland	66
Belgium	68
New South Wales	70
Victoria	70
*Norway	74
Germany	84
France	88
Hungary	94
Denmark	101
*Sweden	113
*Portugal	121
*Austria	141

Those marked (*) are for the period 1896-1900. The United States has no national system of registered births, and the Russian figures are so incomplete

as to be quite unreliable. If we divide the above figures by five, we get the yearly number of illegitimate babies per thousand births.

Q.—Is it really true that there are an immense number of war babies in Great Britain?

A.—In 1915 there was a great agitation in England to reform the illegitimacy laws, to legalize the position of the girls who were "giving themselves to the country." Charity was asked for in order to support the children of the "absent-minded beggars at the front." The Government was urged to adopt these children as the nation's wards. Cold statistics prove that all this was much ado about nothing. The Registrar-General gives the number of illegitimate births in England and Wales, for the months of April, May and June, 1915, as 9,644. This, although a deplorably large number, is 333 less than for the corresponding period of 1914. That is to say, the call to arms has reduced the evil, not increased it. It is the same in France.

Q.—What was the population of Great Britain at the time of the Napoleonic wars?

A.—In 1801 it was 10,942,000. The population of London at that time was 864,800, that of Glasgow was 77,000. In 1850, just before the Crimean war, the population of Great Britain was 20,936,000, and of London 2,360,000.

Q.—Has Germany been drained of her people by emigration to anything like the extent of the United Kingdom?

A.—Men and women are not one of Germany's principal exports. The yearly departure for the last decade has only once touched 30,000, and averages about 20,000. Practically all these went to the United States. The average emigration from Ireland for many years has been more than 30,000 per annum, and in the sixty years from 1851 to 1909 the island lost no less than 4,154,986 of its inhabitants in this way. The total emigration from the United Kingdom has reached 500,000 a year and has averaged more than 200,000 a year for the last decade. This means that, after making all allowances for immigration into the country, the United Kingdom has lost more than 2,000,000 men, women and children during the last ten years by emigration.

Q.—Is it true that every natural-born German, no matter where domiciled, is declared a German subject whether he has sworn allegiance to another country or not?

A.—So far as can be ascertained, no German proclamation of this nature has been issued since the war began. The belief probably is based on the Delbruck Law, which came into force in January, 1914. The Delbruck Law did not apply to German citizens who were already naturalized, but only to those who took out naturalization papers after the Act came into force, and only to those who had obtained the permission of the German authorities in Europe before taking out their papers. As the law came into force in Germany only in January, 1914, and as the war broke out at the beginning of August, one would imagine that Germans naturalized in this country who still remain citizens of Germany in virtue of the new Act must be few indeed, if any.

Q.—Most British emigrants go to British colonies, do they not?

A.—They do not, although during the last quinquennial period before the war something more than half went to Canada, Australia and other parts of the Empire. But 100,000 at least, often 200,000, have been steadily going to the United States every year for very many years.

Q.—Is it true that a naturalized German in Australia ceases to be a British or Australian subject once he is beyond the three-mile sea limit?

A.—Any foreigner naturalized in Australia ceases to enjoy the privileges of British citizenship as soon as he leaves the country, as the British Government does not recognize its responsibility for anyone naturalized in the colonies. An attempt to alter this anomalous state of affairs was made in the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, which received the royal assent on August 7, 1914, and came into force on January 1, 1915. It is, however, specifically stated in the Act that it does not apply to, nor does any certificate of naturalization granted thereunder have any effect in the Commonwealth, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa and Newfoundland, unless the Act is there adopted. As this has

not been done in Australia, any foreigner naturalized there is under the same disabilities as formerly—he ceases to enjoy the privileges of British citizenship as soon as he leaves the country.

Q.—Have the Germans cancelled the naturalization papers of enemy subjects who are still residing in Germany?

A.—There is no absolutely authentic information on the subject, but apparently they have not cancelled them. As far as can be gathered from reports there are no foreigners who have acquired German nationality interned in Ruhleben, although a good number of the "Australians" who are interned there are Germans who became naturalized here. Their naturalization is therefore apparently recognized by the German authorities. The irony of the situation is that if these Australians were liberated and sent back to Australia, they would probably be interned as Germans.

Q.—What are the populations of the South American republics?

Brazil	24,400,000
Argentine	7,500,000
Colombia	5,100,000
Peru	4,500,000
Chile	3,550,000
Venezuela	2,760,000
Bolivia	2,520,000
Ecuador	1,500,000
Uruguay	1,300,000
Paraguay	800,000
Panama	400,000
British Guiana	300,000

Q.—Is this a war of religion?

A.—This is not, in any sense, a religious war, for Roman Catholics are fighting Roman Catholics, Protestants are furiously struggling with Protestants, Greek Catholics are opposed to Greek Catholics, and in a few cases even Mohammedans are slaying Mohammedans. The figures are interesting:—

Roman Catholics	164,000,000
Greek Church	113,000,000
Protestants	95,000,000
Mohammedans	24,000,000

Q.—Are more Roman Catholics on the side of the Allies or of the Central Powers?

A.—There are far more on the Allies' side. It is estimated that the number of Roman Catholics in Germany and Austria is 24,000,000 and 31,000,000 respectively. There are a few thousand Roman Catholics only in Bulgaria. France and Italy are Roman Catholic, and in the United Kingdom there are 6,000,000 professing this faith. The Poles are Roman Catholics; so are the Portuguese. The Serbian religion is Greek Orthodox; so is the Russian.

Q.—What is the number of adherents to the different religions of the world?

A.—There are estimated to be in the world:—

Roman Catholics	272,860,000
Greek Catholics	120,000,000
Protestants	171,650,000
Jews	12,200,000
Mohammedans	222,000,000
Buddhists	138,000,000
Hindus	210,500,000
Confucianists & Taoists	300,000,000
Shintoists	25,000,000
Animists	158,000,000
Miscellaneous	15,000,000

That is, of a total of 1,646,000,000, roughly two-thirds are non-Christian and one-third Christian.

Q.—What are Animists?

A.—They are the races that have a primitive form of religion, which expresses itself in such practices as worship of the spirits of the dead, worship of animals and plants, belief in a sky or underworld inhabited by corporeal beings, etc.

Q.—Are there many Mohammedans in India?

A.—At the census taken in 1911 the total population of India was found to be 315,156,396, of whom 217,586,892 were Hindus, 66,647,299 were Mohammedans, 10,721,453 were Buddhists, and 3,876,203 were Christians. Of the total only 18,539,578 persons could read and write. Two million persons were employed in taking this census, which cost only £135,000 ($680,000).

Q.—Is there religious freedom in Germany?

A.—In Germany there is entire liberty of conscience, and complete social equality among all religious confessions. The

Jesuit Order, however, is interdicted in all parts of Germany. The Roman Catholics are in a majority in Alsace-Lorraine, Bavaria and Baden, and form more than 20 per cent of the population in Oldenburg, Württemberg, Hessen and Prussia.

Q.—Is there a religious revival in France similar to that in Germany?

A.—There appears to be a great revival throughout the length and breadth of France. It is real, say those who have studied it; the most real, tangible, ponderable thing in the war. In Germany, too, the churches are thronged, and a fervent religious spirit is shown.

Q.—Was the Great Mosque of St. Sophia in Constantinople originally a Christian Cathedral?

A.—It was built by Justinian in 538, and replaced two earlier churches of the same name. The first one, built by Constantine, the founder of the city, was burnt in 404; the second, erected by Theodosius II, in 415, also was destroyed by fire. St. Sophia, until the Turks took it, was under the control of the Greek Church, which was not definitely separated from the Latin Church until the great schism of the ninth century. The beautiful paintings and mosaics of the saints inside the building were not all destroyed by the Turks, but wings were painted over their faces, as such figures were prohibited by the Mohammedan religion.

SHIP DESTRUCTION

Q.—How much shipping has submarine warfare destroyed?

A.—During the first 3½ years of the war, the most conflicting figures were given to the world. Spokesmen for the British Government made statements that were alternately encouraging and alarming, but that never gave specific and authoritative facts. The vague figures given were far below the figures claimed by the German Admiralty. American experts, by close calculations, arrived at figures that lay between the British and German, and indicated seriously alarming diminution of the world's tonnage.

On March 21, 1918, the British Admiralty suddenly made public its figures, kept secret until then, and they bore out the American opinion. The Admiralty figures showed that the loss of world tonnage from the beginning of war to the end of 1917 (thus including the first year, less a month, of unrestricted submarine warfare) amounted to 11,827,572 gross tons. It was stated that the figures included losses from the regular risks of the sea and also Allied tonnage interned in German ports. The latter amounted to 132,829 tons. Deducting it, we have 11,694,743 gross tons lost utterly to the world.

Q.—What is the normal ship loss through storm and other risks?

A.—The average of total losses for twenty years shows a loss in peace time of about 156,000 tons a year, but as the world's tonnage has increased every year, of course this average loss must be figured as increasing year by year. After war began the demand for tonnage caused many old ships to be put into service, and, as a good proportion of these probably was not highly seaworthy, the losses from storm, etc., must have increased quite beyond the normal average. Lacking precise figures, only a guess can be made; but if we guess that the loss from natural causes was a million tons from the beginning of war to March 1, 1918, we are probably making an exceedingly generous estimate. This would make the total sunk by submarines 10,694,743 tons.

Q.—What was the total ship loss before unrestricted warfare began?

A.—The British Admiralty figures of March 21, 1918, show the following: 1914—498,534 tons; 1915 1,724,720 tons; 1916—2,797,866 tons, making a total of 5,021,120 gross tons. As the submarine warfare through that period was only against Allied shipping, with only such neutral ships sunk as were carrying contraband, the heaviest part of the loss was British and French.

Q.—How much tonnage loss was British up to the beginning of unrestricted warfare?

A.—The British losses (counting only the ships registered as belonging to the United Kingdom) were given by the Admiralty as follows: 1914—285,899 tons; 1915—1,108,379 tons; 1916—1,497,848 tons; making a total to January 1, 1918, of 2,892,126 gross tons.

Q.—Did the first year of unrestricted submarine warfare increase the British loss heavily?

A.—A little more than four million tons were sunk from January 1, 1917, to December 31, 1917—that is, in the first year of unrestricted submarine warfare the British merchant marine lost one and one-third times as much tonnage as it had lost in all the previous years of the war. Unrestricted submarine warfare began on February 1, 1917. Therefore these figures, while taking in one month before it began, and leaving out one month (January, 1918), are close enough. The total British tonnage sunk in 1917 was exactly 4,009,537, according to the Admiralty figures.

Q.—How much shipping of all nations was destroyed in the first year of unrestricted warfare?

A.—British, 4,009,537 tons; other nations (including both Allies and neutrals), 2,614,086 gross tons. Total of world's shipping destroyed in the first year of unrestricted submarine war (from January 1, 1917, to December 31, 1917), 6,623,623 tons.

Q.—Did Great Britain's Allies lose heavily?

A.—According to the neutral figures, the losses of neutral tonnage in the first year of unrestricted warfare were 1,335,000 tons. This would leave a destruc-

tion of 1,279,086 tons to be accounted for as being Allied merchant tonnage—French, Italian, Russian, Japanese, Portugese, Greek, etc. The losses of American tonnage were comparatively slight in proportion, and made only a very small part of this total.

Q.—How many American vessels were sunk?

A.—It was announced in January, 1918, that during the twelvemonth up to January 25, 1918, submarines, raiders and mines had sunk 69 American vessels totaling 176,061 tons. A good number of these were sailing ships. The loss of life was more than 300.

Among the ships sunk were German vessels that had sheltered in American ports while this country was neutral, and which were requisitioned later and put into American service. The *Actaeon,* formerly the *Adamsthurm* and the *Owasco,* formerly the *Allemania,* were thus sunk.

Q.—What shipping did the neutrals lose?

A.—The figures given by the neutral nations were: Norway, 680,000 tons; Sweden, 200,000 tons; Holland, 175,000 tons; Spain, 80,000 tons; other neutrals, 200,000 tons, or a total of 1,335,000 tons.

Q.—What figures do the Germans claim for submarine sinkings?

A.—The Germans, according to statements made by some officials, expected to sink one million tons a month or twelve millions in the year of unrestricted warfare. In November, 1917, the German Admiralty gave out figures that asserted a total destruction in the first nine months of 7,518,000 tons, or almost a million tons more than the British figures give for a whole year. Calculating the remaining three months' sinkings on the basis of the lowest month's German calculations, the German figures would claim a total sinking in the first year of unrestricted warfare of nine and one-half million tons.

Q.—What does Germany claim as the total destruction of merchant tonnage since war began?

A.—An unofficial statement at the end of 1917 asserted that up to that time 18,000,000 tons had been destroyed. This was to the end of November, 1917, and without counting in December. These figures claimed as the total sinkings before unrestricted submarine warfare a tonnage of 4,560,000 gross. This is less than the British Admiralty statement of 1918, which admits a loss of a little more than five million gross tons.

Q.—Has ship construction kept pace with destruction?

A.—It has not. For a long time the world was curiously misinformed about the situation. Sir Eric Geddes, First Lord of the Admiralty, gave out many figures which puzzled experts. The American Government from the first maintained a consistent attitude, warning the nation that the submarine peril was very real and very acute. The correctness of this American position was proved on March 20, 1918, when Sir Eric admitted in Parliament that submarine destruction amounted to more than six million tons during the first year of unrestricted warfare. The figures that he then gave as to construction to meet the loss, were much less optimistic than those he had been issuing. However, he still claimed that the world had forty-two million tons of shipping left and that seventy-five per cent of the losses was being replaced by new construction.

Q.—What did American figures suggest as to the tonnage shortage?

On March 1, 1918, two weeks before the British Admiralty figures were published, the executive board of the National Patriotic Societies made public figures asserting that the shortage in world tonnage was almost seven and one-half million tons—that is, equal to a shortage of 1,500 five-thousand-ton vessels. It was declared that the total tonnage really available to the United States and the Allies was four and one-half million tons less than it had been in 1914. Attention also was called to the fact that this shortage was aggravated by the demand for at least three million tons to transport and maintain one and one-half million men in the war zone. Sir Eric Geddes claimed on March 20, 1918, before Parliament that the world shortage was only two and one-half million tons.

Q.—What is the new ship construction of the world?

A.—When the British Admiralty made its secret figures of submarine sinkings public on March 21, 1918, it gave also an estimate of the amount of new construc-

tion by all the nations of the world exclusive of the Central Powers. The figures showed that at the end of 1915 there had been built a little more than two million new tonnage. In 1916 there was built a total tonnage of 1,600,000. The tonnage building in 1917 was a little more than 2,700,000 tons. Altogether, in exact figures, the new tonnage (part of which it will be observed was only laid down in 1917 and not ready to launch) was 6,606,275 tons. That meant that the submarines were sinking merchant tonnage almost twice as fast as new tonnage was being produced (one and three-quarter times as fast, to be exact).

Q.—Did not Norway lose more tonnage than some of the belligerents?

A.—Norway's loss of 680,000 tons caused her a bigger loss in tonnage than that of France, Italy, Russia, Greece or Japan. As, however, Norway was a great merchant-marine nation, her losses comparatively were not so heavy as those of such belligerents as originally had only a limited merchant marine.

It is known, also, that Norwegian citizens built and bought a huge number of ships throughout the war for the special purpose of trading through the dangerous war zone, and that the profits so gained probably more than paid for the tonnage lost in the trade.

Q.—What is Norway's rank in ownership of merchant tonnage?

A.—Norway has a population of only 2,390,000. Her mercantile tonnage as recorded last was 2,770,000—more than one ton per head of population. Germany, with a population of 68 millions, had 4,150,000 tonnage. Great Britain, with 46½ million population, had 19,130,000 tonnage before the war.

Q.—Are the Germans building many merchant ships?

A.—Neutral visitors reported that many merchant ships had been laid down since the war began, and the reports of German shipping companies show that there must have been many new ships on the stocks. The North German Lloyd reported that since 1914 it had taken over ten vessels in course of construction, with an aggregate tonnage of 70,000 tons, and that there still were eight steamers being built, of an aggregate tonnage of 135,000 tons. These include the *Columbus* and the *Hindenburg*, each of 35,000 tons, much larger than the giant *Vaterland*. Of the company's 25,000 employees, some 6,000 were then serving at the front or in the navy.

Q.—What was the effect of war on America so far as ship-movement was concerned?

A.—The records of the Department of Commerce show that for the period beginning February 1, 1917, and ending December 1, 1917, the clearances from American ports were 17,738,000 tons net (about 28,834,000 gross). This total, of course, was produced by many repeated voyages of the same ships.

Q.—In what months of the year can submarines act most energetically?

A.—The figures of tonnage lost by the month will give an indication. A more graphic one is offered by the following table showing numbers of ships lost in each month from February 1, 1917, to February 1, 1918.

British Losses in Ships.

	Number Ships.
February	140
March	93
April	185
May	113
June	110
July	81
August	104
September	73
October	87
November	61
December	70
January (not wholly complete)	52
Total	1,169

Q.—Why was the ship "Frye" sunk?

A.—The *William P. Frye* was an American ship that was captured by the German raider *Prins Eitel Friedrich*, January 28, 1915, while carrying a cargo of wheat to the British Isles. The raider took off her crew and sank the ship on the ground that the cargo was contraband. The United States Government protested against the sinking, urging that it was in violation of the treaties of 1799 and 1828 with Prussia, and presented a claim for the value of the ship. The German Government acknowledged

its liability under the treaties, but contended that the sinking of the ship was legal if its value in money was paid. An agreement was finally reached, providing that the question whether there had been a violence of international law should be referred for decision to The Hague tribunal.

AMERICAN SHIP SEIZURES

Q.—How many German and Austrian ships did we requisition?

A.—Requisitions in American ports after American declaration of war added 107 vessels with a tonnage of 686,494 gross tons to the merchant marine under the United States flag.

This leaves out of account such German and Austrian ships as were taken over for naval and army purposes.

Q.—What was the value of these ships?

A.—It was estimated to be more than $100,000,000. This great aggregate value was produced, of course, by the many magnificent liners among the requisitioned ships, and the greatly increased ship-values.

Q.—Did the United States add other ships to the merchant service by requisition?

A.—Through the Shipping Act the United States requisitioned in American shipyards 426 vessels totalling more than 2,000,000 gross tons, which were building for neutrals and for Great Britain, France and other of the Allied nations.

Q.—What was the capacity of the German liners?

A.—Fifteen of the ships were ocean liners ranging from 10,000 to 54,000 tons. These fifteen ships had an aggregate tonnage of 280,000 tons, and a combined carrying capacity of 60,000 troops.

Q.—When did requisitioned German ships carry supplies to the front?

A.—On January 29, 1918, announcement was made that sixteen former German ships had reached France within a period preceding the announcement. Among these was the great *Vaterland*, re-named *Leviathan*. Among the others were: *Covington* (*Cincinnati*), *America*, (*Amerika*), *President Grant*, *President Lincoln*, *Powhatan*, (*Hamburg*), *Madawaska*, (*Koenig Wilhelm II*), *George Washington*, *Mount Vernon* (*Kronprinzessin Cecilie*), *Agamemnon* (*Kaiser Welhelm II*), *Aeolus* (*Grosser Kurfürst*), *Mercury* (*Barbarossa*), *Pocahontas* (*Princess Irene*), *Huron* (*Friedrich der Grosse*), *Von Steuben* (*Kronprinz Wilhelm*), *De Kalb* (*Prinz Eitel Friedrich*).

The names in parentheses are the original German names of these ships.

Q.—What other German ships were re-named?

German name.	American name.
Andromeda	*U.S.S. Bath*
Breslau	*U.S.S. Bridgeport*
Frieda Leonhart	*U.S.S. Astoria*
Geier	*U.S.S. Schurz*
Grunewald	*U.S.S. Gen. G. W. Goethals*
Hermes	*U.S.S. Hermes*
Hohenfelde	*U.S.S. Long Beach*
Kiel	*U.S.S. Camden*
Liebenfels	*U.S.S. Houston*
Locksun	*U.S.S. Gulfport*
Neckar	*U.S.S. Antigone*
Nicaria	*U.S.S. Pensacola*
Olöenwald	*U.S.S. Newport News*
Praesident	*U.S.S. Kittery*
Rhein	*U.S.S. Susquehanna*
Rudolph Blumberg	*U.S.S. Beaufort*
Saxonia	*U.S.S. Savannah*
Staatssekraetar Solf	*U.S.S. Samoa*
Vogensen	*U.S.S. Quincy*

Q.—Was it possible to repair all the German ships?

A.—It was announced officially that by 1918 every damaged German ship had been fully repaired and was in active use, some having made three or four round trips through the war zone.

Q.—Why did the American Government not prevent damage of these ships?

A.—Before the American declaration of war, the German and Austrian ships were sheltering in American ports under full right, and their masters and crews were in complete charge. The American Government had only such rights over them as every government may exercise over foreign ships in its waters. This right did not extend to interference with any acts of master or crew that did not endanger the security or peace of the United States. The owners and crews were at perfect liberty, both legally and morally, to dismantle these vessels entirely, even to break them up for junk, if they so desired. So long as the damage they did

to their own ships did not block American channels or otherwise affect the rights of any except the owners of those vessels, they had the right to do what they wished with their own property.

Q.—Then they could not be punished?

A.—A good way for Americans to get the legal and even moral point of view in this matter is to consider what the American feeling would be toward an American ship-master and crew lying in German waters when war was declared. If such Americans had dismantled or damaged their ships to make them worthless to the German Government, we would, without doubt, and quite properly so, fully approve it.

Q.—What German ships were interned in New York?

	Tons.
Adamsturm	5,000
Allemannia	4,630
Armenia	5,464
Barbarossa	10,984
Bohemia	8,414
Clara Menig	1,685
Friedrich der Grosse	10,771
George Washington	25,570
Grosser Kurfürst	13,102
Harburg	4,472
Hamburg	10,531
**Indea*	1,746
Kaiser Wilhelm II	19,361
Koenig Wilhelm II	9,410
Magdeburg	4,497
Maia	2,555
**Matador*	1,468
Pennsylvania	13,333
Pisa	4,967
Portonia	2,778
President Grant	18,072
President Lincoln	18,168
Prinzess Irene	10,893
Prinz Eitel Friedrich	4,650
Prinz Joachim	4,760
Vaterland	54,282
	271,503

Q.—Were many ships interned in other ports?

BOSTON

Kronprinzessin Cecile	19,503
Cincinnati	16,339
Amerika	22,622
Wittekurd	5,640
Willehad	4,761
Kohn	7,409
Ockenfels	5,621
	81,895

NEW ORLEANS

Breslau	7,624
Andromeda	2,554

SAN FRANCISCO

Serapis	4,756

BALTIMORE

Bulgaria	11,440
Neckar	9,835
Rhein	10,058

CHARLESTON, S. C.

Liebenfels	4,525

PORTLAND, OREGON

**Dalbek*	2,723
Kurt	1,731
Arnoldus Vinnen	1,860

SAVANNAH

Hohenfelde	2,974

WILMINGTON, N. C.

Nicaria	3,974
Kiel	4,494

PHILADELPHIA

Rhaetia	6,600
Franconia	4,637
Prinz Oskar	6,026

SEATTLE

Saxonia	4,424
**Steinbek*	2,164

HONOLULU

Prinz Waldemar	3,227
Pommern	6,557
Gouverneur Jaeschke	1,738
Holsatia	5,644
Loong Moon	1,971
Staatssekretar Kraetke	2,009
Letos	4,730
O. J. D. Alhers	7,490
Hermes	1,180

SAN JUAN, P.R.

Odenwald	3,537
Praesident	1,849

TAMPA

Rudolf Blumberg	1,769
Frieda Leonhardt	2,789
Vogensen	3,716

NORFOLK

Appam	7,781
Prinz Eitel Friedrich	8,797
Kronprinz Wilhelm	14,908

* Sailing ships.

Q.—Must belligerents pay for use of enemy ships used during war?

A.—According to international law, payment must be made for the use of all

enemy ships which were in harbor when war was declared or were taken on the high seas before the captain knew that war had broken out. It is even customary to obtain the formal permission of the enemy company owning the ships before making use of them. Such permission is, of course, granted, because the ships would be commandeered whether or no.

The terms of hire are, as a rule, settled by the courts. In the last report of the Nord Deutscher Lloyd Company mention is made of there having been five of its ships in Italian harbors, four in Portuguese, and five in Australian, "which have all been requisitioned, and will be duly paid for." It stated further that two large and three small ships had been lost in government service, and five had been captured on the high seas.

Q.—If the Germans sink requisitioned German ships, who will pay for them in the end?

A.—If this matter were not complicated by public feeling, quarrels over mutual charges of violations of international law, etc., the answer would be very simple. We should have to pay for them. The legal argument is as follows: (1) the German ships sheltered in American ports when the United States was neutral. In so doing they exercised their good right and it was the duty of the neutral to so shelter them. (2) When the United States declared war on Germany, the German merchant shipping in her ports thus occupied the position of being vessels entitled to immunity from prize capture, under the international law that a belligerent may not make prize of enemy merchant vessels that lie in his ports at the time of declaring war. (3) The only right that the United States thus had as against these vessels was to requisition them. This right was exercised. Requisition does not carry ownership with it. Requisition carries with it, on the contrary, responsibility both for safety and for the use of the requisitioned property. Under international law, the owners of the German ships therefore have the right to collect from the United States after the termination of the war, whatever may be justly due for the use of their ships, depreciation and damage.

Q.—But is it fair to pay for ships that the enemy sinks?

A.—It would hardly be possible for public opinion in the United States to see anything but crying injustice in any claim by Germany for payment. No doubt this public opinion will play a great part in the final adjustment of the question.

Q.—Are there no legal points to justify non-payment for ships thus sunk?

A.—There are many; but before we enumerate them we must explain that the legal points that justly tell against the German Government do not necessarily tell against the private German owners of the ships; and it is the private German owner who has the claim under international law. However, even this matter may develop an interesting point, viz., that possibly the German Government is part owner in at least some of these vessels, by virtue either of stock ownership or of laws designed to encourage German shipping.

As against the German Government, the United States could maintain that whatever ships were sunk were so sunk illegally. To this the German Government would respond, no doubt, that (1) the German war zone orders were justified as reprisal against Allied violations of laws of blockade; (2) that armed merchant vessels, and merchant vessels armed or unarmed, under convoy were subject to attack without previous visit and search.

Q.—Why did we not seize the German ships in the Danish Islands?

A.—It had been generally assumed that these vessels, like other enemy craft sheltering in American harbors, could be commandeered when the United States declared war against Germany It has been found, however, that in the deed of sale it was specifically stipulated that the German vessels in the harbors of the Danish West Indies should not be commandeered in the event of the United States going to war with Germany. They remain, therefore, in the harbors of what are now known as the Virgin Islands, and cannot be touched.

Q.—What happened to German ships in the Suez Canal?

A.—There were seven, and as they could not get away they remained in the Canal. Ultimately, the British Government insisted that the directors of the company should instruct them to leave as they were obviously not utilizing the canal for its proper purpose, but were sheltering themselves there in the sanctuary created by the internationalization

of this waterway. As they were not granted right of passage to home ports, and yet had to leave the canal, they have, presumably, passed into British hands.

Q.—What British ships were seized in German ports?

A.—Seventy-four, with a total tonnage of 170,000.

Q.—What German ships were seized in British ports?

A.—One hundred and two, with a tonnage of 200,000. In addition, 88 were captured, aggregating 338,000 tons, and 168 of 283,000 tons, were detained in the ports of France, Belgium and Russia, chiefly at Antwerp.

Q.—Did the Allies seize German ships in Greek harbors?

A.—It was announced that when the Allies occupied the wireless station, telegraph offices, the post-offices, and the Customs at the Piraeus in 1917, a launch from a French cruiser visited the four German East African steamers which had lain in the harbor since the outbreak of war, hoisted the French flag on each ship, and left a detachment of French soldiers on board, after arresting the few Germans found on the vessels. At the same time, the Hamburg-American liner, *Marienbad*, was seized in the Gulf of Salamis, and another ship was taken over in the harbor of Lyra.

Q.—Who purchased the "Dacia"?

A.—This is the ship about which there was so much controversy during 1915. She was a German vessel, and was purchased by an American of German descent named E. M. Breitung. He paid $165,000 for the ship, loaded her with $750,000 worth of cotton, which was to be carried to a German port for $190,000 freight money. At that time cotton was not contraband of war, and it was generally understood that Great Britain recognized as legal the transfer of an enemy ship to a neutral citizen. The matter was solved, however, by the *Dacia* being captured by a French cruiser, as France does not recognize the transfer of an enemy ship to a neutral during war time.

Q.—If a British ship is sunk, will the British Government make good the loss?

A.—It is hardly probable. In any case the loss would not fall on the shipping company, but on the underwriters, and as the government has offered insurance on lower terms than Lloyds, much of the loss has actually been borne by the government already. The Admiralty does not guarantee protection to merchantmen. They put to sea at their own risk.

Q.—How many German ships were in Portuguese and Italian ports?

A.—There were 36 at Lisbon and 8 at St. Vincent, Cape Verde Islands, and 2 at Goa. There were 37 German vessels in Italian ports.

Q.—Have any German ships escaped from neutral ports?

A.—About the middle of February, 1917, the *Bahrenfeld* got away from Buenos Ayres, and the *Turpin* from Punta Arenas, Chili. The *Asuncion* endeavored to escape from Para, but was prevented by Brazilian cruisers. Rumors of other vessels stealing away have been many, but probably most of them are incorrect.

Q.—How many German ships did the Allies capture in the Cameroons?

A.—There appear to have been sixteen steamers lying in Duala harbor when the place was occupied. Eleven of these were Woermann Line steamers. As these are properly prizes of war, some of them have since been sold. The Elder-Dempster Company, which has lost nine steamers at the hands of the enemy, including the *Appam* and the *Falaba*, purchased one of the Woermann liners at a prize sale, and renamed it the *Gold Coast*.

Q.—What was the "Appam" case?

A.—The British merchant ship *Appam* was captured by the German raiding cruiser *Moewe* (Gull) on January 15, 1916. A German prize crew was put aboard, and while the *Moewe* continued her cruise, the *Appam* was brought safely westward and succeeded in passing the British cordon off Chesapeake Bay and anchoring safely in Hampton Roads.

Q.—Did the Germans have the right to bring a prize into American ports?

A.—They did. But the question arose whether they had the right to keep her there, and thus use American ports as an asylum for prize ships. The Germans

claimed that provisions in the United States-Prussian treaties of 1799 and 1828 conferred this special right. The United States claimed that the clauses cited did not permit the entry of a prize unattended by the capturing vessel. This view was upheld by the Supreme Court in a decision handed down March 6, 1917. The result was that the *Appam* finally was turned back to her British owners.

THE WORLD'S SHIPS OF PEACE

Q.—How fast is our Atlantic merchant fleet growing?

A.—In July, 1917, some ships in the Pacific were transferred to the Atlantic. In August, 1917, the Shipping Board asked Congress for another appropriation of $915,000 for its building program. This amount would be used for purchase and commandeering of materials and plants and for ship construction. Legislation was asked to permit ships of foreign register to engage in coastwise trade.

On August 24, 1917, nearly 3,000,000 tons of shipping was ready to be contracted for, and 1,281,000 more under negotiation at a total estimated cost including cost of commandeering and the purchase of available vessels of $915,000,000; of this fully two-thirds are for the Atlantic fleet. June 15, 1917, all power-driven cargo-carrying and passenger vessels above 2,500 tons deadweight capacity under construction in any yard, and materials, equipment and outfit thereto, were requisitioned by the United States.

Q.—How much shipping did this give us?

A.—On September 26, 1917, the United States had 458 ships of over 1,500 deadweight tons with an aggregate tonnage of 2,871,359. There were also 117 ships of German and Austrian origin, totaling 700,285 tons. Four hundred ships of 2,500,000 tons had been commandeered and 636 ships with 3,124,700 tons were contracted for by the U. S. Emergency Fleet Corporation. It was at this date expected that the United States would have near the end of 1918 a merchant fleet of more than 1,600 ships, aggregating 9,200,000 tons, as compared with an overseas marine of 1,614,222 tons on June 30, 1914.

Q.—How did we get Great Lakes ships to the Atlantic?

A.—By the astonishing process of cutting the ships in half and towing the pieces through to the St. Lawrence river, and then patching the ships together again. In the last part of 1917, the United States Government commandeered about 20 ships from the coastwise trade and then went to work to replace them with steamers from the Great Lakes fleet. The latter were from 275 to 300 feet long, whereas the locks of the canals would not accommodate vessels of more than 250 feet. The big iron ships were cut in two and the halves were brought through the locks separately, to be spliced together again in the St. Lawrence River. Most of the ships were brought together again and made whole in the water without dry-docking. Divers bolted the halves together and the sides were securely united by heavy steel tie-plates.

Q.—How much money has been invested in American shipping?

A.—Since the war began a total of $401,749,000 has been invested in ship firms in this country. For January, 1918, alone the amount was $21,274,000. There were nineteen new ship firms incorporated in January. Of the $21,274,000 invested, $6,650,000 was designated for shipbuilding and $14,624,000 for other shipping projects. The development over the entire war-period is shown in the following table compiled for *The Journal of Commerce*, which sets forth the authorized capital of new concerns:

Five months, 1914.....	$1,844,000
Year 1915	37,662,000
Year 1916	69,466,000
Year 1917	271,503,000

Q.—How many shipyards have we?

A.—Six years ago the United States had barely seven shipyards. To-day these seven yards and 132 others are working night and day, two and three shifts at a time, turning out vessels for the Emergency Shipping Board. The shipyards are scattered throughout the United States from Fore River, Boston and Newark Bay, Delaware, New York, Philadelphia, Newport News, clear around Mobile on the south, to Seattle and Tacoma on the west.

Q.—What is meant by a "standardized" ship?

A.—It is a ship the parts of which can be manufactured in multiples of tens and hundreds of thousands, then assembled in a shipbuilding plant. In Great Britain, standardizing of ships has been in vogue

for a quarter of a century, decreasing the cost of ships 50 per cent. Under this plan, one shipyard may limit itself to only one size and type of ship. The parts, all alike, can be manufactured in many different factories in any desired quantity—plates in one, boilers in another, engines in another, rivets in another. The shipyard thus would be the assembling plant merely. The benefits gained from standardizing are decreased cost and increased speed.

Q.—What were the chief difficulties in the way of the immense program?

A.—It might be accurate to say that a number of difficulties were so great as well to make them all "chief" in rank. The supply of man-labor was a vast problem. The production of enough material was another. The transportation of this material was still another. Each of these great problems was independent of the rest, yet not one of the problems could be solved satisfactorily without solving the others simultaneously. Other difficulties, minor in comparison, but actually enormous in specific aspect were: (1) erecting shipyards, (2) providing housing and food supply for labor, (3) financing the vast expenditures, (4) fuel, (5) adjusting all these imperative needs to the equally imperative needs of other industries, and to the absolutely imperative needs of the army and navy.

Q.—What was the "Great Shipyard Drive"?

A.—On January 28, 1918, the United States government employment service began a nation-wide campaign to enlist workers for the shipyards. State directors of the Public Service Reserve conducted the drive in the various states.

Q.—Have we a training ship for the merchant marine?

A.—Yes. The first training ship of the United States Merchant Marine, the *Calvin Austin*, brought its first graduates to New York in March, 1918, and the men were placed in their first positions. The *Calvin Austin* is stationed regularly at Boston, where the Recruiting Service of the Shipping Board has its headquarters.

Q.—Is it true that ships can be built of concrete?

A.—Yes. The Shipping Board gave contracts in February, 1918, for ten such craft to be constructed by the Ferro Concrete Shipbuilding Corporation of Redondo Beach, Cal. The vessels were to be of 3,500 tons. In March, 1918, the first large concrete ship was launched on the Pacific coast. The craft was 5,000 tons and named *Faith*.

Q.—When was the concrete ship invented?

A.—The first craft made of reinforced concrete was a small one, built by a Frenchman in 1849. Before 1900 some barges of about 100 tons were in use in Italy and Holland. In 1900 a large 200-ton barge for river traffic was built in Germany, and by 1918 concrete barges varying in capacity up to 700 tons were being used in the Panama Canal, the Welland Ship Canal, the Manchester Ship Canal in England, and in the harbors of San Francisco, Baltimore, and Sydney, New South Wales.

Q.—Who built the first big concrete vessel?

A.—Norway. A 400-ton ship was launched in 1917, and it has been announced that regular ocean-going cargo vessels are to follow. They are to be as big as 5,000 tons, though those now being designed or constructed appear to be from 3,000 to 4,000 tons. Instead of using steam, they will be propelled by gigantic Diesel oil-motors.

Q.—What was the result of negotiations with the Swedish Government over shipping?

A.—Late in January, 1918, preliminary agreement was made with Sweden through conferences in London, providing for the charter of Swedish ships to the United States, to be used principally for South American trade. It was announced that some of the Swedish vessels which had been held in American waters would be allowed to sail with their cargoes.

Q.—How many ships of 10,000 tons are there in the world?

A.—A good number have been sunk during the war, and a few may have been launched. In 1914 there were 130 British ships of this size afloat, and some 15 launched or building. There were 40 German afloat, and half a dozen building or just launched. The United States had

9, France 15, Holland 7, Japan 4, and Belgium 5. Altogether, afloat, launched and building, there were about 250.

Q.—What is the increased capacity of British ships owing to sanctioning of deck loads?

A.—Some shipping experts assert that by deck loading, and the permission given to load ships down to the "Indian Summer" Plimsoll mark, no less than 500,000 tons was in effect added to the British mercantile marine.

Q.—What is the Plimsoll mark?

A.—It is a government mark painted on the sides of British ships to denote the maximum depth to which they may be sunk by loading. There is a "summer mark" and a "winter mark," the loads permitted for summer being greater because the better weather permits less free board. The name "Plimsoll" comes from the name of the member of Parliament who worked for the law.

Q.—When a ship is said to be 5,000 tons, does that mean its cargo capacity is 5,000 tons?

A.—That is generally assumed, and, on that assumption, various very wild calculations have been made and are made by laymen. As a matter of fact a ship's "tonnage" is really its displacement, that is to say, the weight of the water it displaces when afloat. This measurement is used for all warships, which always carry their full load. A different method of measurement is generally employed in calculating the tonnage of a merchant ship, and as a rule a warship of exactly the same size as a merchant ship will be registered at a considerably higher tonnage. Roughly, but quite roughly, the cargo capacity of a boat is just about double its registered tonnage. That is, a steamship of 5,000 tons register would have a cargo capacity of about 10,000 tons. This is a case where a quart can apparently be put into a pint pot!

Q.—Is the draught of the largest merchant ships greater than that of dreadnaughts?

A.—The biggest merchant ships are a great deal larger than the most powerful dreadnaughts, and have a considerably deeper draught. The following table comparing pre-war battleships and merchantmen, gives the information up to the war:—

	Tonnage.	Length.	Breadth.	Draught.	Horse-power.	Speed.
		Feet.	Feet.	Feet.		Knots.
Dreadnaught battleship—	22,500	545	88½	27.5	27,000	23
Battle-cruiser—	26,350	660	86½	27.5	70,000	34.7
Titanic—	46,000	882	92½	34.6	47,000	20
Britannic—	54,000	924	94	35	60,000	23
Imperator—	50,000	905	98	35	60,000	22

Q.—Are French shipyards making good shipping losses?

A.—Apparently nothing very definite has been done. The shipbuilders and shipowners complain that the Government has, as yet, taken no measures to enable the shipyards to secure the necessary raw materials, and the Committee of Shipowners has decided unanimously "once again to call attention to the danger that threatens the French merchant marine of disappearing, if the shipyards are not in a position to construct vessels with the shortest possible delay." The Italian Government appears to be fully alive to the need of adding to its merchant marine, and voted a sum of 165,000,000 lire ($30,000,000) for the construction of merchant vessels during 1917.

Q.—Are many foreign sailors in the British mercantile marine?

A.—The figures for 1913 were as follows:—

British	212,570
Lascars and Asiatics.....	46,848
Foreigners	32,639

Of these 70,622 were engaged exclusively in home trade, 25,000 being on fishing vessels; 10,244 were in vessels engaged partly in home and partly in oversea trade.

We may assume that practically all these 70,000 were British, which would leave 142,000 British for foreign trade, and 79,000 Lascars and foreigners. It appears, therefore, that the proportion in the British oversea mercantile marine is not quite two British seamen to one foreigner.

Q.—Was the "Lusitania" the famous Atlantic "greyhound"?

A.—Yes. This was the first great British ship built for the American trade, which was fitted with turbine engines. She and her sister ship, the *Mauretania*, won the blue ribbon of the Atlantic from the Germans, who had held it for some years. The *Lucania*, with the *Campania*, held it before the Germans captured it, with the *Deutschland*, in 1900. The *Lusitania* was built in 1907, and displaced 31,550 tons. The *Britannic*, sunk in the war, had a tonnage of 54,000.

Q.—How were the losses of British ships and cargo covered when sunk by submarines?

A.—Both ships and cargo were insured by the Government, and this is how it happens that the loss of ships has actually shown a profit on some of the ledgers of British shipping companies. Bonar Law made a statement in the House of Commons concerning the profits he had made on his shipping investments. He invested the sum of £8,100 in fifteen shipping companies running tramp steamers. Five per cent on that amount would be £405, but he received £3,615 in dividends in 1915, and £3,847 in dividends in 1916, after paying excess profits.

Q.—Did British Colonies limit German ships trading to their ports?

A.—There was no limitation at all. The more ships came into Dominion ports the better pleased the Dominions were. The German ships carried much cargo between Great Britain and the outlying parts of the empire, and one such port at any rate owed its prosperity very largely to German ships.

German vessels running along the east coast of Africa took the produce of British East Africa to England at a price which allowed a profit to be made. The rates charged by the British ships, on the other hand, made it not worth while sending the produce of this particular dependency home.

Much of the West Indian trade was in German ships, notably the trade between New York and Jamaica.

Q.—Is Germany's great merchant fleet based on government subsidy?

A.—That is the generally accepted explanation that is advanced for the fact that the Germans have in many cases beaten British shipping companies, but, like so many other accepted ideas, it has little or no basis in fact.

Q.—Do not the German companies receive large grants?

A.—The grants they got were in the form of payments for the carriage of mails, as the British Orient and P. and O. and as American ships do or may. The following comparison is interesting:

SUBSIDIES PAID TO STEAMSHIP COMPANIES IN CONNECTION WITH AUSTRALIAN SERVICE

Company.	Voyages per Year.	Total No. of Miles run per Year.	Subsidy.	Amount of Subsidy per Mile.
Norddeutscher Lloyd	13	342,420	£95,000	5s. 6½d.
P. and O. Line.....	26	652,860	146,500	4s. 5¾d.
Orient Line	26	692,640	173,400	5s.
Messageries Maritimes	13	315,198	48,760	3s. 1d.

From this table it will be seen that there is not a very great difference between the British and German "subsidy." Still more interesting is the following comparison between the subsidies for the carriage of mails paid to the different companies in connection with their Eastern services.

Company.	Voyages per Year.	Total No. of Miles run per Year.	Subsidy.	Amount of Subsidy per Mile.
Norddeutscher Lloyd	26	675,246	£171,000	5s. 0½d.
P. and O. Line	26	731,120	164,500	4s. 5¾d.
Messageries Maritimes	26	528,372	228,950	8s. 7¾d.
Gesellschaft Nederland	26	494,000	26,500	1s. 0¾d.
Rotterdamsche Lloyd	26	468,000	26,500	1s. 1½d.

Oesterreichischer Lloyd	12	235,715	34,600	2s. 10½d.
Societa Marthina ..... (Genoa-Bombay)	13	117,499	68,400	11s. 7½d.
Nippon Yusen Kaisha	26	639,808	316,900	9s. 10¾d.

According to these figures the Norddeutscher Lloyd is not a "hot house" product unless the French, Italian and Japanese lines be accused of being artificially fostered.

EUROPEAN TRADE ARTERIES

Q.—Is the Danube the longest river in Europe?

A.—No. The longest is the Volga (2,000 miles), a river entirely in Russian territory. Authorities differ as to its exact length. Strelbitsky, the greatest authority on European rivers, puts it at 1,977 miles, but General von Tillo, another expert, says it is 2,107 miles long. It drains a huge area, no less than 560,000 square miles, and the most fertile part of Russia is in this basin, which supports no less than 40,000,000 people. It empties into the Caspian Sea, but, by means of canals linking up with other rivers, it is actually connected with the Baltic.

Q.—How long is the Danube?

A.—The Danube is 1,644 miles long, but has a basin of only 315,000 square miles. It is, however, a far more notable stream than the Volga, has a much greater discharge of water, and has an international importance greater than any other river in the world.

Q.—What are the next longest European rivers?

A.—The river next in size is the Ural, 1,446 miles; then the Dnieper, 1,164 miles, in whose basin dwell 28,000,000 people; then the Kama, 1,115 miles; then the Don, 1,110 miles; and then the Pechora, 1,024 miles. All these are Russian rivers, so, too, are the Oka, 914 miles, and the Dniester, 835 miles.

After them comes the Rhine, which is only 709 miles long, but the position of which makes it second only in importance to the Danube among European streams.

Q.—Is the Danube navigable for heavy tonnage?

A.—The central channel, called the Sulina, is the one now used through the Delta. From its mouth to Braila the Danube is navigable for sea-going ships up to 4,000 tons register. From Braila almost to the Iron Gates sea-going ships of 600 tons can use the river, and barges of some 2,000 tons capacity navigate it. From the Iron Gates to Vienna barges drawing five feet of water are used. From Vienna to Regensberg it is possible for barges of 600 tons register to be towed up against the rapid stream. A canal connects the Danube with the Mainz, which flows into the Rhine at Mainz. It is said that the Germans are already engaged on a scheme for joining the Rhine and the Danube by a deep canal, which will permit the passage of very large barges, and thus link the Black and the North Seas.

Q.—How wide and how deep is the Rhine?

A.—At the Swiss frontier it is only 189 yards wide. At Mannheim it is 429, at Mayence 402, at Coblenz 399, at Bonn 532, at Cologne 433, at Dusseldorf 409, and at the Dutch frontier 909. From Mayence to Dusseldorf it varies from 9 to 76 feet in depth. Above Mayence it is never deeper than 25 feet, and it shoals to as little as three feet in places.

Q.—What is the Rhine Navigation Treaty?

A.—It is a convention which gives to Germany the right of conveying shipments through the Netherlands by way of the Rhine without let or hindrance. The Dutch authorities are not permitted to examine the cargo at all, their privileges being limited to an examination of the ship's papers.

Q.—Is the Scheldt a Dutch or a Belgian river?

A.—It is a Dutch river. The Scheldt enters Holland eleven miles after it leaves Antwerp, and runs for fifty miles through Dutch territory to the sea. It is, therefore, in Dutch territorial waters, and, although it is a trade-free river, its neutrality must be respected.

Q.—What is a trade-free river?

A.—A river on which no tolls are charged, and which is entirely free to the shipping of the world. Up to 1863 Holland had the right to, and did, levy a toll of 3 shillings (about 75 cents) a ton on all ships using the Scheldt to reach Antwerp. This absolutely throttled the port of Antwerp, and, after many attempts, a conference of twenty-one Powers and States held at Brussels, was successful in arranging a treaty freeing the Scheldt. Belgium and the other interested Powers bought the toll right from Holland for about $7,200,000, of which sum Belgium paid about $2,400,000. Since

then Antwerp has gone ahead by leaps and bounds. With its suburbs it had a population of about 360,000 before the war. Of these, 16,000 were Dutch, and 10,000 Germans.

Q.—How long is the Kiel Canal?

A.—Sixty-one miles, a few miles longer than that of Panama. The Suez Canal is almost 100 miles long, and cost about $125,000,000 to build. The Panama Canal, fifty miles long, cost $372,000,000.

Q.—What was the cost of the Kiel Canal?

A.—The proper name of the canal is the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal. Its original cost was $39,000,000. The reconstruction cost $55,000,000. It was 29½ feet deep, but has been deepened and widened, so that it can take the greatest dreadnaught afloat. The sluices at the Baltic end are 1,072 feet long, and 145 feet wide, and are the largest in the world.

Q.—Who owns the Suez Canal?

A.—The shareholders of the Egyptian Company, which was formed by M. de Lesseps to build it. The original capital was £8,000,000 in 400,000 shares of £20 each. France originally took 200,000 of these, the Ottoman Empire took 96,000. Of the remaining shares the Viceroy of Egypt obtained 85,506. England, Austria, Russia and the United States would have nothing whatever to do with the projected canal, the cutting of which was strongly objected to by the British Government. Lord Palmerston told de Lesseps, when he went to London to raise money, that, in the opinion of British experts, the making of a canal between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea was a physical impossibility, the levels of the two seas not being the same. However, in 1875, when the Khedive of Egypt, being hard pressed for money, tried to sell the shares he held—those of the former Viceroy and those taken up by the Turkish Government—to a French syndicate, the British Government stepped in, and purchased the lot, 176,602 shares in all, for £3,976,582. This was about their face value at the time. Those shares are now worth £30,000,000!

Q.—Who was responsible for this purchase?

A.—Lord Beaconsfield generally gets the credit for this coup, which gave Great Britain virtual control of the canal.

Q.—How do the railways of Europe compare?

A.—According to the latest pre-war figures, Germany had 39,000 miles of railway; France, 31,000; United Kingdom, 23,420; Russia, 46,000; and Italy, 11,000. Since 1880 the total receipts of the German railways have gone up nearly four times, and the ton mileage more than four times. In that same time the British receipts and ton mileage have just about doubled.

Q.—Is the telegraph used as much on the Continent of Europe as in England?

A.—Much more than in England. Germany has 142,000 miles of telegraph line; France has 114,000, the United Kingdom 61,000. There are 50,000 postoffices in Germany, 14,000 in France, and 24,000 in the United Kingdom. There are 72 letters per head written in Great Britain and only 49 per head in Germany. In France there are 40, in Russia 10, and in Italy 11 per head.

Q.—What is the line of the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad?

A.—It starts really at the Elbe North Sea port of Hamburg, running down Elbe valley to Berlin. Thence it goes southward through Prussian Brandenburg, largely continuing along the Elbe valley. Still directed southward, it crosses Saxony, touching the Saxon city, Dresden, and then pierces the Erz Gebirge (Ore Mountains), descending into Bohemia, and passing through the Bohemian city of Prague.

Thence it goes southeasterly to Vienna. From Vienna it follows the Danube valley to Budapest and, passing along the northern side of the Danube, in Hungarian territory, it goes to the Serbian capital Belgrade.

Continuing southeasterly, it crosses Serbia and reaches the Bulgarian capital Sofia. Traversing southern Bulgaria, it reaches Turkish Adrianople and then Constantinople. From Haidar-Pasha on the Bosporus, opposite Constantinople, it extends through Asiatic Turkey into Mesopotamia, touching Mosul, and so to Bagdad.

Q.—When was the Berlin-Bagdad Railroad begun?

A.—It was begun about 1900 when a German company obtained concessions

from the Sultan for the line from Constantinople to Bagdad. The intention was ultimately to extend from Bagdad to the Persian Gulf.

Q.—Does it tap rich country?

A.—It taps thousands of miles of neglected country with big possibilities, but, to bring these possibilities into being, vast projects of reclamation, irrigation, colonization by agricultural laborers, etc., are necessary. Many of these projects have been begun.

Q.—How many miles is it from Berlin to Bagdad?

A.—In direct air-line it is 2,000 miles. By rail, when the missing link in the Bagdad railway is completed, it will be about 2,650 miles. The Germans propose building a great bridge across the Hellespont, and, if that were done, it would be possible to travel in one of the carriages of the *Compagnie Internationale des Wagon Lits* from Calais in France, on the English Channel, to Koweit, on the Persian Gulf, a distance of some 3,000 miles, without a change, as the Bagdad railway is of standard gauge.

Q.—Has the Bagdad railway really been completed?

A.—Various statements have been made about it. It is known definitely that the connecting link through the Taurus Mountains was completed in 1914, and at that time the section from Aleppo to Ras-el-ain—86 miles—was finished. When the war broke out, or shortly afterward, the rails had been laid from Bagdad to Samarra, 88 miles. It is probable that the link between Ras-el-ain and Mosul (200 miles) has also been finished, but it is improbable that the line from Mosul to Samarra, a distance of 160 miles, has been laid.

Q.—Does a direct railroad line connect Odessa with Bucharest?

A.—No. A railway runs from Odessa to Bender, where the Dniester is crossed; from there it runs south to Reni, on the Danube, from which place a boat is taken to Galatz, a distance of some eight miles. The railway to Bucharest from that port runs through Braila, Buzen, and Ploesci. Another route can be taken, but it is a long way round, through Kishinef—the capital of Bessarabia—to Jassy, crossing the frontier of Ungheni, where the break of gauge necessitates changing trains. From the present capital of Roumania, either of the north-south railways can be taken to Bucharest.

Q.—Have all railways in Europe the same gauge?

A.—All have the standard 4-ft. 8½-in. gauge except Russia, where the gauge is 5 ft. In Argentine they have the largest gauge in the world—viz., 5 ft. 6 in. This is due to the fact that the Argentines purchased the railways and rolling stock which were laid down by the British and French during the Crimean War. The gauge used was 5 ft. 6 in.

Q.—Is the Euphrates a navigable river?

A.—Not for commercial purposes. Sailing craft manage to traverse it from the Persian Gulf to Hit, due west of Bagdad, but beyond that town even they cannot go. Hit is about 500 miles from Kurna, where the Tigris and Euphrates meet and flow to the Persian Gulf in one stream, known as the Shat-el-Arab. The Euphrates rises near Erzerum, and is about 1,800 miles long. When the snows melt in the Armenian mountains in March and April, the river overflows its banks, but, otherwise, it is a sluggish stream. In November, when the water is low, rocks, dams, and shallows make navigation exceedingly difficult.

WORLD TRADE

Q.—Has our entrance into war caused much upset to American business?

A.—No. The adjustment of business throughout the country to war conditions was effected with very little trouble. R. G. Dun and Co. reported that during 1917 there were fewer business failures than in any one of the three years previous. The liabilities of the failures that year totaled $183,441,371, smaller than the corresponding figures for any one of the last ten years.

Q.—Was there a decline in American foreign trade as the immediate result of the submarine blockade?

A.—The German submarine blockade, announced as beginning February 1, 1917, had the following effect: Exports for January, 1917, from the United States, $613,000,000. Exports for February, $466,000,000. The decline in tonnage arriving in February at the port of New York was 23 per cent below the arrivals in January. The drop in tonnage cleared was 20 per cent.

Q.—Did England levy heavy duties on German goods?

A.—Great Britain made no discrimination whatever. All goods—with but few exceptions—could enter the country without paying any customs duty at all. Duties were levied on a few commodities, but without the slightest reference to their place of origin. Sugar, for instance, whether from the West Indies, Australia, India, Russia, France or Germany, had to pay a duty of from 10 pence (about 20 cents) to 4 shilling 12 pence (about $1.25) a hundred pounds, according to its quality, irrespective of where it was produced.

Q.—Did all German goods entering England have to be labelled "Made in Germany"?

A.—It was done under an Act known as the Merchandise Marks Act, which was passed in 1887. At that time the Conservatives were in power, Lord Salisbury being Prime Minister. The Act was passed because of the manner in which trade marks were falsified, and because of the outcry against the importation of so many German articles which, it was said, were far inferior to the British, and caused unfair competition.

Q.—What was the result of this law?

A.—It turned out that this Act was the greatest advertisement for German goods imaginable. When it came into force people were amazed to find that some of the best articles they purchased were made in Germany instead of, as they had supposed, in Great Britain. The result was that the label, "Made in Germany," instead of being, as was anticipated, a brand of inferiority, became actually a recommendation. The German manufacturers and merchants were quick to seize the opportunity and "Made in Germany" became their slogan which they sent around the world. The Act never was repealed, but has been modified in various ways.

Q.—Did America's foreign trade profit or lose by the war?

A.—The total foreign commerce of the United States for 1917 established a record. The following are the official figures for the years before and after the outbreak of the European war:—

Exports and imports from the United States for the calendar year 1915, and for a series of calendar years, compare as follows:

	Exports.	Imports.
1917	$6,226,000,000	$2,952,000,000
1916	5,480,000,000	2,391,716,335
1915	3,554,670,847	1,778,596,695
1914	2,113,624,050	1,787,276,000
1913	2,484,311,176	1,792,183,645
1912	2,399,217,993	1,818,073,055

	Excess of exports over imports.
1917	$3,274,000,000
1916	3,089,184,596
1915	1,776,074,152
1914	324,348,049
1913	602,127,531
1912	581,144,938

Q.—Does Great Britain control the trade of Holland?

A.—She does so in effect through the Netherlands Oversea Trust. The Dutch

were induced by this means early in the war to divide their exports equally between Germany and the Allies—that is to say, if they wished to send a thousand tons of potatoes to Germany they had to send a thousand to Great Britain, despite the fact that the Germans would probably have been willing to pay twice as much for the supplies. Later the Allies insisted that the Dutch send the British share to England in their own vessels. The Germans, on the other hand, refused to supply coal to the Dutch unless an equivalent in foodstuffs were sent across to Germany.

Q.—Is it true that German goods reached this country after war began?

A.—Yes, but the amount was exceedingly small compared with that which crossed the Atlantic in ordinary years. For the seven months, March to September, before the war, in round figures the value of imports into the States from Germany and Austria was $120,000,000. From March to September, 1915, the value of imports from these countries dropped to $22,000,000. This sum includes the goods which were already in neutral ports in the way of shipment or in transit.

Q.—Why did Great Britain allow any goods through?

A.—As the object of the policy of blockade was to injure the enemy, not neutrals, the Allied Governments in certain cases permitted the export of goods which had been ordered before March 1, 1915 (when the famous Orders-in-Council were promulgated), and had been either paid for before that date or ordered on terms which made the neutral purchaser liable to pay whether the goods reached him or not. It is clear that in these cases no harm could be done the enemy or pressure be put upon him by not allowing the goods to pass.

Q.—Will there be prosperity or depression after the war?

A.—That is a question no one can answer. This struggle has shattered most financial shibboleths, and has touched the industries and trade of the world as no other conflict ever did. If precedent is anything to go by, there will be great prosperity. The Napoleonic wars, the Crimean War, the American Civil War, the Franco-Prussian War, and the Boer War all involved relatively great increase in the debts of the belligerent nations, and yet they were all followed by low interest rates, advancing security prices and great trade activity in the markets of the defeated as well as those of the victorious countries.

Q.—How does German trade in general compare with British?

A.—Forty years ago the exports of Great Britain were nearly three times those of Germany. In 1913, Germany had almost caught up. The figures were:—Great Britain, £525,000,000; Germany, £496,600,000. Great Britain's exports in 1912 were £487,200,000, actually less than Germany's in 1913. In 1911 England exported goods to the value of £454,000,000. Germany in that year exported £398,000,000.

Q.—When was the Paris Conference held?

A.—Allied representatives met in Paris in June, 1916, to formulate economic principles which should govern their conduct after the war was over. The conference projected what was practically an economic boycott of the Central Powers. President Wilson, in his reply to the Pope's peace note, definitely committed the United States against any such specific principle.

Q.—What were the specific propositions of the Conference?

A.—So far as trading with the enemy after the war is concerned, they were as follows:

"Whereas the war has put an end to all the treaties of commerce between the Allies and the enemy Powers, and whereas it is of essential importance that during the period of economic reconstruction which will follow the cessation of hostilities, the liberty of none of the Allies should be hampered by any claim put forward by the enemy Powers to most-favored nation treatment, the Allies agree that the benefit of this treatment shall not be granted to those Powers during a number of years to be fixed by mutual agreement among themselves.

"During this number of years the Allies undertake to assure to each other, as far as possible, compensatory outlets for trade in case consequences detrimental to their commerce result from the application of the undertaking referred to in the preceding paragraph."

Q.—How would this hit the Central Powers?

A.—The Allies declared themselves agreed to conserve for the Allied countries before all others their natural resources during the whole period of commercial, industrial, agricultural, and maritime reconstruction, and for this purpose they undertake to establish special arrangements to facilitate the interchange of these resources.

In order to defend their commerce, their industry, their agriculture, and their navigation against economic aggression, resulting from "dumping," or any other mode of unfair competition, the Allies were to fix by agreement a period of time during which the commerce of the enemy Powers should be submitted to special treatment, and the goods originating in their countries be subjected either to prohibitions or to a special regime of an effective character.

Q.—Was it contemplated to do more?

A.—The Allies were to determine by agreement through diplomatic channels the special conditions to be imposed during the above mentioned period on the ships of the enemy Powers.

The Allies were to devise measures to be taken jointly or severally for preventing enemy subjects from exercising in their territories certain industries or professions which concern national defense or economic independence.

Q.—Do economists approve of the plan for cutting our German trade?

A.—No. Although at the time the Paris resolutions were hailed with enthusiasm by many who misjudged after-war conditions, it was not long before thoughtful men everywhere began to see how utterly impossible it will be to put them into force. One of the first to raise his voice against the economic blockade was Yves Guyot, most distinguished of French economists. He was Minister of Public Works for some years. Many of his works have been translated into English, and are regarded as text books. M. Guyot, speaking in London, said that "any attempt to suppress free exchange of goods between France and Germany could be advantageous only to smugglers." Dealing with the drastic measures proposed, he said that "a treaty of peace could not be a treaty of war."

EUROPE'S FOOD

Q.—What rations are allowed to an Englishman?

A.—A system of rationing went into effect in London and the English counties on meat, butter and margarine on February 25, 1918. The allowance for meat is 20 ounces per mature person per week. Children over 10 are entitled to only one-half a pound weekly.

Meat, butter and margarine may be obtained on ration-cards only. On the meat cards are four coupons for each. Of these only three may be used in buying butchers' meats, such as beef, mutton and pork.

The butter and margarine ration is four ounces per person weekly.

Q.—Were meatless days ordered in England?

A.—Not until January, 1918, when Lord Rhondda, the Food Controller, issued an order applying to all hotels, restaurants, boarding houses, and public places, to begin forthwith. It specified two meatless days weekly—Tuesdays and Fridays in the London district, and Wednesdays and Fridays in other parts of the kingdom.

It ordered that between the hours of 5 and 10:30 o'clock in the morning no meat, poultry, or game may be consumed on any day, and no milk may be consumed as a beverage except by children under ten years of age.

A guest must provide his own sugar for sweetening beverages except that residents of hotels, clubs, and boarding houses may be supplied with not exceeding six ounces of sugar weekly for this purpose, if they do not possess the ordinary sugar rations.

Q.—Had England done anything else in food regulation?

A.—In 1916 it was made illegal for bread to be sold unless it were at least twelve hours old, and in the shape of a one-piece oven bottom loaf, or a tin loaf or a roll, no currant, sultana, or milk bread to be sold, and no sugar to be used in making bread. Bakers were also prohibited from exchanging new bread for old. All bread was to be sold by weight, and the loaves had to weigh under 1 pound or an even number of pounds, and loaves not weighing the prescribed amount were to be cut up and sold by weight. Rolls had to weigh 2 ounces.

Q.—What was the price for potatoes fixed in Great Britain?

A.—The fixing of prices created a good deal of criticism and protest in England and ultimately it was decided that the prices named should not be regarded as contract prices, but as minimum prices, guaranteed by the Government for potatoes of the first quality. Prices were as follow:

£5 15s. per ton for delivery from December 15 to January 31, 1917.

£6 per ton for delivery in February and March, 1917.

£6 10s. per ton for delivery for the remainder of the season, for quantities of not less than six tons, F.O.B. or F.O.R.

Q.—Were meat prices high in England in 1918?

A.—It was reported in March that the prices ranged from about 43 cents a pound for the best cuts to about 25 cents a pound for inferior cuts.

Q.—Did the British nation's whole food cost increase very heavily?

A.—England's imports of foodstuffs in the whole of 1917 increased $198,500,000 in cost over the preceding year, the increase being very largely due to higher prices.

Q.—Is it possible to purchase sugar in England without buying other provisions at the same time?

A.—It is illegal for anybody to make conditional food-sales in Great Britain. Food Order, 1917, provides that, except under authority of the Food Controller, no person may impose any condition, when selling any article of food, to necessitate the purchase of any other article. Grocers may not sell any article of food in excess of the customer's ordinary requirements.

Q.—Whence does England draw most of her supplies in peace?

A.—She obtained the following supplies of wheat in 1913, 1914 and 1915 in cwts.:—

Place.	1913.	1914.	1915.
U. S. A.	22,000,000	34,200,000	41,600,000
Argentina ..	16,000,000	6,500,000	12,200,000
India ...	21,500,000	10,700,000	13,900,000
Canada	19,000,000	31,500,000	19,700,000
Russia .	10,700,000	7,200,000	800,000
A'stralia	12,000,000	12,100,000	200,000
Roumania	896,000	343,000	.....
Chile ..	511,000	51,000	.....
Total	102,607,000	102,594,000	88,400,000

This would seem to suggest that during 1915 England must have drawn on her stores for at least 14,000,000 cwts., and, therefore, had to enter 1916 with a more slender margin between importation and consumption than is customary.

Q.—What foods does England import and raise?

A.—It is somewhat difficult to answer that question as there are so many items, and given in such different measures, while no estimate even can be made as to the local production of many articles of food. The main staples can, however, be given:—

	Produced in U. K. Tons.	Imported. Tons.
Wheat and flour..	1,600,000	6,100,000
Butter	84,000	200,000
Potatoes	5,500,000	200,000
Cheese	140,000	120,000
Margarine	.....	70,000
Sugar	.....	1,800,000
Maize	.....	2,200,000
Rice	.....	300,000
Rabbits	?	20,000
Beef	800,000	480,000
Mutton	200,000	250,000
Bacon and hams..	390,000	280,000
Eggs	?	2,225,000,000 eggs (worth £7,300,000).

The total value of food imports in 1913 was $1,381,000,000.

Q.—Just what proportion of wheat is imported?

A.—The Prime Minister told the House of Commons in 1916 that between 70 and 80 per cent of the staple cereal supply was imported every year. He said then that the existing food stocks were alarmingly low, and urged that every effort should be made to increase that year's harvest and the next. If the area under cultivation was not increased at once, he said, the nation might have to choose between diminishing its military efforts and underfeeding its population.

Q.—Were there heavy imports of wheat into England during 1916?

A.—The imports for what is called the harvest year (September 1, 1915, to August 31, 1916) were practically the same as for the previous one, 1914-15, viz., 106,000,000 cwts., as compared with 110,000,000 cwts. for 1913-14, but the home production was 41,500,000 cwts., as against 31,300,000 in 1913-14, and 36,700,000 cwts. in 1914-15. During the last five months of 1916 viz., from June 17th to December 16th, the imports were as follow:

	June 17-Dec. 16, 1916. Cwts.	June 17-Dec. 16, 1915. Cwts.	June 17-Dec. 16. 1914. Cwts.
Imports	49,271,200	50,897,000	64,502,300
Home grown	18,416,500	16,059,600	17,876,300
Total	67,687,700	66,956,600	82,378,600

It would seem, therefore, that the imports during the twelve months of 1916 were a good deal behind those of 1914.

Q.—Is it true that supplies—notably sugar—shipped to the Allies have been resold to Americans?

A.—Food shipped to the Allies is, from the moment of its arrival, under supervision or control of Government agencies.

In Italy such an agency exists since 1915, under control of a "Commissary General of Supplies." Especially drastic regulations govern the use, import and export of sugar.

In France, a special "Ministry of Provisioning and Maritime Transports" takes care of all imports and exports.

In England the "Ministry of Food" and the "Royal Wheat Commission" look after such matters. To re-sell supplies exported from America to the Allies is, therefore, next to impossible.

Q.—Has the amount as well as the value of meat imports into Great Britain greatly increased since war began?

A.—During 1916, 533,811 tons of frozen and chilled meat were imported into the United Kingdom, as against 662,925 tons in 1915, and 694,427 tons in 1914. It is probable that the amount consumed in England was nearly the same in 1916 as it was in 1914, because large quantities were diverted to the British armies on the Continent, and do not appear in the statistics. The total amount of meat consumed in 1916, including the home-killed supplies, was 1,677,548 tons. The value of meat imported in 1914 was £30,059,527; in 1915, £39,576,930; and in 1916, £36,484,143.

Q.—What sheep, pigs, and cattle are in the United Kingdom?

A.—In 1914 there were 12,184,505 head of cattle; 27,960,000 sheep; 3,952,600 pigs. Sheep had increased in number by 200,000 in 1915, but cattle and pigs had decreased to 12,000,000 and 3,860,000 respectively. Of the pigs 2,400,000 were in England and Wales, 100,000 in Scotland, and 1,300,000 in Ireland. Ireland had 4,850,000 of the cattle and England 5,300,000. There were 1,850,000 horses in 1914 and 150,000 fewer in 1915.

Q.—Has the British War Office called agricultural laborers under the Compulsory Service Bill?

A.—Apparently it called up 30,000 men before 1917. Lord Derby, the Minister of War, says that about 180,000 agriculturists have joined the forces since the beginning of the war, and that in 1918, 30,000 men of military age were employed on or about the farms of England and Wales. From that number the War Office had been authorized to take 60,000 men who had been refused exemption by the tribunals. The War Cabinet, however, reduced this number to 30,000, and presumably no more will be taken off the land. Obviously it will be difficult for the farmers of Great Britain to produce increased crops when almost half their laborers have gone to France.

Q.—Are children much used in England in agricultural work?

A.—There has been a good deal of protest concerning the way in which children have been working in the fields, thus losing many months of their school education at a time when it was most necessary to them. The need for labor, however, induced educational authorities to release large numbers of children from compulsory attendance at school. The Kent Educational Committee, for instance, in January, 1917, released 638 children for agricultural work, and similar action has been taken all over the country.

Q.—Could England, Scotland and Ireland together produce enough to feed the United Kingdom?

A.—Probably they could, but it would be at the expense of some of their great industries. Millions now engaged in manufacturing work would have to go on the land. Great estates would have to be cut up and up-to-date methods would have to be employed. At present the United Kingdom produces enough wheat to last its people for three, possibly four, months. To provide a full wheat supply 6,000,000 acres would have to be cultivated instead of 1,850,000, acres as before the war; or the yield per acre would have to be increased as it was in Germany. Sugar beet factories would have to be erected and great areas would have to be planted with this root crop. The dairying industry would have to be immensely developed; fisheries, too; and the working classes would have to revert to their one meat-meal a week, to which they were accustomed before cold storage brought lamb, mutton and beef within their reach. Thus, to become self-supporting, Great Britain would have to turn herself into an agricultural country and cease to be a great industrial center of the world.

Q.—Does England get much food from Holland and Scandinavia?

A.—The value of the imports from Holland before the war was about £19,000,000, from Denmark about £20,000,000, from Norway about £7,000,000, and from Sweden about £12,000,000 per annum, a total of £58,000,000 every year. Practically the whole of the imports from Holland were foodstuffs: Peas, rice, eggs, fish, cheese, butter (£1,000,000), margarine (£2,000,000), sugar (£2,000,000), hides, poultry, condensed milk. From Denmark too, little but food was imported, butter accounting for more than half the total, the rest being made up of eggs, bacon and other dairy produce.

From Norway the largest food export was fish (£938,000 in 1914); butter, ice, fish-oil together amounted to barely £500,000. The chief items were paper, wood-pulp, and timber. From Sweden not only about £2,000,000 worth of butter, eggs, and the like were obtained, but over £1,000,000 of iron and iron ore was sent from Sweden to Great Britain. Wood-pulp, paper and timber amounted to more than £8,000,000.

Q.—Does Great Britain produce most of the pork she requires?

A.—No. She relies heavily upon Denmark, Holland and the United States for supplies of bacon, pork and ham. The President of the Board of Agriculture has, however, urged the breeding of large numbers of pigs, and has suggested the starting of "Pig Clubs" in every district. The object of these clubs is to get in touch with those who are willing to keep a pig, and to find out to what extent they need financial assistance in the purchase of the animal. This method had already been in good working order for some time in Germany. Pigs, there, are always very numerous, and form one of the greatest meat supplies of the country. Some time ago, it is reported, everyone able to do so was required to keep a pig. The piglet was supplied by the authorities, and when it had grown up, was taken away, and replaced by another small piglet. In this way, the Germans have greatly increased the number of pigs available for market throughout the whole empire.

Q.—Why do European nations not use more corn?

A.—They are not accustomed to it. What they call "corn" is wheat and rye. Their name for our corn is "maize," and that, by the way, is the correct name. In reading European articles, it is well to remember that the word "corn" means the real cereals in Europe. Many a writer on Europe has made queer mistakes by not being aware of this.

Q.—Could we not induce them to use our corn?

A.—In 1918 the Europeans decided to do so. Their food shortage was such that the Allies consented to much greater use of corn than had been anticipated. The Allied countries normally raise 121,109,000 bushels of corn and import from the United States 10,811,000 bushels, and 135,670,000 from other sources, their total consumption in pre-war times being 266,596,000 bushels.

Of a crop of 3,124,000,000 bushels the United States expected to have a surplus of about 370,000,000 bushels, and Canada a 62,000,000 bushel surplus.

Q.—How many nations in Europe are self-supporting?

A.—Every European nation relies to some extent upon imports, and if these were suddenly to stop, it would entail great hardships on certain countries, while some would suffer heavily. The producing countries could exist after a fashion, but in others the people would starve quickly. The two countries most dependent on supplies from beyond their borders are the United Kingdom and Italy. Great Britain largely lives on imported foodstuffs, and gets copper, oil, cotton, wool and other essential raw material from overseas. Italy has to rely entirely on other countries for coal, and imports immense quantities of wheat, meat and other foodstuffs. France could exist without imports even more easily than Germany has done. Countries like Denmark, Holland, Norway and Sweden, although they import foodstuffs, probably could make shift to support themselves. Great poverty would result, however, if the condition should last long.

Almost all these countries lack coal. Probably the most self-supporting countries in Europe are Spain, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, Serbia, Turkey and Russia. Switzerland lives largely on imported cereals, and has to get coal and other minerals from abroad.

Q.—Has the productivity of France decreased since the war?

A.—There has been a notable decrease. Edmond Thery made a special study of French agriculture, and published the following remarkable tables. The first of the tables deals with cereals, and is as follows (the figures representing thousands of quintals and covering the total production of France):—

Years Mean	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.
1905-1914	87,970	12,869	9,862	48,995
1913	86,919	12,715	10,438	51,826
1914	76,936	11,147	9,753	46,206
1915	60,630	8,420	6,921	34,626
1916	58,411	9,116	8,579	41,280

The second table gives similar figures

for potatoes, wine, sugar, and is as follows:—

Years. Mean	Potatoes. Millions of Quintals.	Wine. Millions of Hecto- litres.	Sugar. Millions of Kilos.
1905-1914	134	53	705
1913	136	44	878
1914	120	56	717
1915	94	18	303
1916	88	33	136

Thery considers the state of affairs will be worse after the war, because of the anticipated competition of manufacturers and traders for labor.

Q.—Have the French restricted food consumption?

A.—Yes. M. Heriot, the wonderful organizer of Lyons, who was made Food Controller in France, issued a decree that food consumption must be reduced. According to this decree no person in any public feeding place could be served with more than two dishes, only one of which could be meat. Apart from these two dishes the consumer was entitled to soup or *hors d'œuvres*, and cheese or dessert, but not both. Vegetables, whether cooked or raw, were to be counted as separate dishes if served separately. In order to reduce the consumption of flour, milk, eggs and sugar, *entremets* were suppressed. All restaurant menus had to be radically simplified, and were subject to official inspection and control. They could not include more than two soups and nine dishes, which were as follow: One dish of eggs of various sorts, two varieties of fish, three varieties of vegetables.

Q.—Is less French land cultivated now than before the war?

A.—Under wheat in the early part of 1917 there were 4,207,530 hectares, as against 5,205,620 in 1916, which was less than normal. Under millet there were 84,485 hectares, as against 101,205 in 1916; under rye 809,735 hectares, as against 925,600 in 1916, and under oats 2,605,070 hectares, as against 3,044,760 in 1916. Only in barley was there a slight increase, 596,705 hectares in 1917 to 586,285 in 1916. The average yield per hectare was much less.

Q.—Does Chile export wheat?

A.—Chile once supplied Argentine and California with wheat, but after these countries became producers themselves the Chilean output declined. The value of the wheat exported the year before the war was about $5,000,000. Most of it went to Great Britain.

Q.—When were the European sugar bounties abolished?

A.—They were abolished by the Convention of Brussels in 1902. An object of this Convention was to put an end to the bounty war for the British market, which the Continental Powers had been waging among themselves. In England it was hoped that the sugar cane growers of the West Indies would benefit. The Continental Powers agreed to the abolition of the bounties only on the distinct understanding that special tariffs equal to the bounty should be levied on sugar produced in countries not signatories to the Convention. Great Britain, however, in 1908, when the treaty came up for renewal, declared that she would sign only if she were allowed to import bounty-fed sugar on the same terms as she imported sugar not bounty-fed. The Continental Powers strongly protested, but only by being relieved from the undertaking to penalize bounty-fed sugar would Great Britain re-sign the Convention.

Q.—Did the price of sugar go up in England in consequence?

A.—In 1902 the price of sugar f.o.b. Hamburg was 6s. 7½d. per cwt.; next year it went up to 8s. 3¾d., and in 1908 it was 10s. 5¾d. In this connection it is worth quoting what Mr. Chamberlain said on the question of sugar, before he became a protectionist:—

"The policy which this country has been applying for many years is to prefer the large consuming interests of the whole community to the small producing interest of any single class. . . . It is to the interest of the sugar consuming public to have raw and refined sugar cheap; it is to the interest of the English sugar refineries to have raw sugar cheap and refined sugar dear, and it is to the interest of the West India sugar growers to have raw sugar dear."

Q.—Did Germany pay larger bounties than any other country?

A.—The French bounties were the highest of all, averaging 4s. 6d. per cwt. Then came the Russian with 3s.; then the German with 1s. 6d.; and then the Austrian with 1s. 3d.

Q.—Give particulars as to where sugar imported into Great Britain before the war came from.

A.—The cane sugar was all imported raw. The following figures were for 1910:—

Raw Cane Sugar.

	Tons.
Java	118,304
Cuba	96,332
Peru	46,206
Brazil	51,469
Mauritius	41,739
West Indies	78,737
Other countries	120,504
Total	553,291

Raw Beet Sugar.

	Tons.
Russia	93
Germany	229,970
Holland	20,294
Belgium	10,996
France	436
Austria	57,918
Total	319,707

Great Britain, however, got most of her sugar ready refined, and practically all of this was made from beet. The imports were as follow:—

	Tons.
Russia	2,289
Germany	325,792
Holland	118,161
Belgium	49,460
France	60,987
Austria	199,466
Other countries	80,707
Total	836,862

The value of the raw cane sugar was £6,689,345; of the raw beet sugar, £3,728,931; and of the refined sugar, £13,161,023, in the two years 1909 and 1910.

Q.—Was all this sugar consumed in the United Kingdom?

A.—Great Britain exported in 1910 31,416 tons of refined sugar, and consumed 1,728,730, of which 1,166,569 tons were beet sugar and 562,161 tons cane sugar. The year 1910 is hardly a truly representative one, as there was a bad drought in Europe, and sugar was scarce. In 1909 1,467,764 tons of beet sugar were consumed in the United Kingdom, and 292,393 tons of cane sugar.

Q.—What sugar was imported into the United Kingdom before war?

A.—27,900,000 cwts. in 1910, 30,300,000 cwts. in 1911, 26,600,000 cwts. in 1912, and 31,100,000 cwts. in 1913. Just over half of the annual import came from Germany and Austria. Beet sugar was also imported from Holland and Russia. Cane sugar was obtained from the West Indies and India. It is interesting to note, though, that, although the British West Indies are regarded as mainly sugar-growing countries, the value of their cocoa and fruit exports is greater than that of their sugar nowadays.

Q.—Is Canada asking British soldiers to go there when war is over?

A.—The Canadian Commissioner of Immigration visited England, and on his return to Canada announced that he anticipated a tremendous immigration of Imperial ex-service men.

Q.—What are the Metropolitan Public Kitchens of England?

A.—The first was opened by Queen Mary in May, 1917. It can serve 10,000 meals daily. The menu on the opening day was: Scotch broth, 2d. and 1d.; roast beef or mutton, 4d.; fruit mould, rice or date pudding, 1½d.; maize scones, 1½d.; greens, 1d.; no potatoes, tea or coffee. (The English penny is about 2 cents.)

Q.—Did the Chicago beef packers protest against British confiscations?

A.—They objected to the seizure in the first place, and to the long delay of the British Prize Courts in the second. Meat to the value of $15,000,000 was held up on ships going from American to neutral ports, and in some cases nearly a year elapsed before the Prize Courts gave their decisions. In giving his judgment about some cargoes of meat destined for Denmark, Sir Samuel Evans said that the meat was obviously intended for German consumption.

Q.—What did the Americans contend?

A.—The American packers contended that no proof whatever was produced that this was so, and quoted Mr. Asquith's explanation that the increase of coal exports from Great Britain to Scandinavian coun-

tries "was not so much due, and indeed was not due at all, to their being ultimately destined for Germany, as the fact was that these countries were deprived for the time being of the supplies that they have been accustomed to receive from the enemy countries."

Q.—What have European countries done about the use of alcohol?

A.—France and Italy abolished the famous and deadly drink known as absinthe. Russia prohibited the noted distilled brandy-like drink known as vodka. Great Britain greatly limited brewing.

Q.—Was drunkenness in England really great?

A.—The figures of convictions for drunkenness in the sixteen English cities which have a population of over 200,000 show a notable decrease since the war. In the year 1913 the conviction in these sixteen large towns were 107,316. In 1915 the convictions were 80,091, and in 1916 they were 46,638. In London the drop has been from 65,488 in 1913, to 29,453 in 1916. In Liverpool the convictions in 1913 were 14,894, and in 1916 only 5,926. Of course millions of men have gone into the army, but this is to a great extent balanced by the fact that the working classes have been fully employed at high wages, which fact, in ordinary circumstances, would tend to increase drunkenness; so that the decrease may reasonably be credited to the way in which the sale and consumption of liquor have been regulated.

Q.—Was the decrease due mostly to restrictions on liquor?

A.—Notably. The Central Control Board states that during the five years 1909-13, there was a steady rise in the number of convictions for drunkenness. A rapid decline set in immediately after the orders of the Board came into operation. In December, 1913, the total convictions in the London areas numbered 5,701; in December, 1914, they were 5,295; in December, 1915, they were 3,105. In February, 1916, they had fallen to 2,506. From statistics gathered by the Board it would seem that the reduction of drunkenness throughout England was from 40 to 50 per cent. Results in Scotland had not been so satisfactory. The Board was taking special steps to deal with the increase of drunkenness among women, especially those in receipt of separation allowances.

Q.—Was the English order for restrictions of beer intended for temperance?

A.—Lord Devonport in explaining it specifically stated that the object was to increase the amount of certain commodities available for food, and to economize in tonnage, transport, fuel and labor. During the last few years, owing to various restrictions, the consumption of beer, wines, and spirits had been falling rapidly in the United Kingdom, but the consumption of other beverages showed a corresponding increase. The Board of Trade returns give the imports of tea, coffee and cocoa, as follow:—

	Tea. lbs.	Coffee. cwts.	Cocoa (raw) lbs.
1913 ..	365,000,000	847,000	78,000,000
1916 ..	377,000,000	1,647,000	196,000,000

The imports of tea in 1915 reached an even higher figure, the amount being 431,000,000 pounds. That is to say, that in 1916 room had to be found in ships for 2,000,000 cwts. more tea, coffee and cocoa than in the year before the war.

Q.—Did restrictions on beer in England save much barley?

A.—According to Lord Devonport the regulations, which reduced the output of beer to 50 per cent of the pre-war total, saved 286,000 tons of barley, 36,000 tons of sugar, and 16,500 tons of grits. It was really, he said, a question of bread versus beer. The regulation actually provided for the malting of 70 per cent only of the output of beer for the financial year ending on March 31, 1917, which is equivalent to a reduction of 50 per cent on the pre-war production. Before the war the output was 36,000,000 standard barrels; for 1917 it was expected to be 18,200,000 only.

Q.—Has Congress restricted the manufacture of whiskey?

A.—Yes. Under the provisions of the Food Control Act passed in August, 1917, the manufacture of whiskey was proscribed for an indefinite period beginning September 7, 1917. This provision is a grain-saving measure and 40,000,000 bushels of grain a year is the estimated saving.

AMERICA'S FOOD

Q.—Did the Food Board under Hoover have power to fix retail prices?

A.—No. Congress declined to give such powers, and it is probably correct to say that the Administration did not strongly desire them, because of complications and opposition that could be foreseen readily enough.

Q.—How, then, did the Government succeed in regulating retail dealers?

A.—It did not "succeed," if by "succeed" you mean in keeping retail prices down to prescribed levels. It did, however, succeed in a very large sense, for it established not only a strong and intelligent public opinion but also a general clear perception among the retail merchants of the whole country that they must exercise discretion and moderation.

Q.—Did the Food Board exercise only moral influence?

A.—Technically and legally speaking, yes. But in actuality Hoover's machinery had a very real and very powerful weapon to compel observance of rules that had no statute law behind them. This weapon lay in the legal control which Congress had given to the Food Board over the wholesale system of food supplies. Under a licensing system for wholesalers, the Food Board was able, in actual practice, to divert supplies from retail dealers who transgressed the rules.

Q.—How many European soldiers could we feed?

A.—The Food Administration announced in March, 1918, that food sufficient to furnish a balanced ration to an average of more than 16,000,000 men yearly was shipped from the United States from the beginning of the war to January 1, 1918, to Great Britain, France, Italy, and Russia. In addition, there was a surplus of some 625,000 tons of protein and 268,000 tons of fats.

Q.—How was this apportioned?

A.—Russia received less than 1 per cent of the total, or only enough to feed about 10,000 men a year. Great Britain took more than half of the entire total, or enough to feed about 8,000,000 men. France was next, with enough for 4,200,000 men, and Italy sufficient for more than 2,000,000 men. The three together received an excess of protein capable of supplying this portion of the diet to some 20,000,000 additional men.

Q.—Did we ship much food abroad in February, 1918?

A.—The exports of grains and cereals, including flour, to the Allied nations and for Belgium relief work totaled 553,429 tons for the month of February, 1918.

A tabulation of the exports of grains and cereals by weeks was:

	Tons.
Feb. 1 to 7	84,658
Feb. 8 to 14	150,095
Feb. 15 to 21	143,829
Feb. 22 to 28	174,847
Total	553,429

Q.—Did our total food exports rise in 1917?

A.—The Bureau of Domestic and Foreign Commerce reported early in 1918 that during 1917 dairy and meat product exports had jumped to new high figures but cereal exports had declined. The exports of meat, dairy products and food animals in 1917 exceeded $400,000,000, against less than $150,000,000 in the year before the war, and against $255,000,000 in the high record year 1916. Part of this increased value is due, of course, to the vastly higher prices; but the actual quantities have increased enormously. The exports of wheat for 1917 were 106,202,318 bushels, for which the foreign interests paid $245,633,541. These exports were 48 million bushels less than for 1916. Total shipments of corn in 1917 were 52,169,583 bushels, against 55,548,298 bushels in 1916.

Q.—What quantity of flour did we ship since war began?

A.—The total exports of wheat and wheat flour to Great Britain, France, and Italy were equivalent to 384,000,000 bushels, or an average of 110,000,000 bushels per year. Exports of pork and pork products totaled almost 2,000,000,000 pounds, while sugar exports to those countries showed a yearly average of

648,000,000 pounds. Oats exports for the three and one-half years totaled 212,751,000 bushels, corn 24,310,000 bushels, and rye 3,618,000 bushels.

Q.—Did we do equally well with meat exports?

A.—Exports of fresh beef amounted to 443,484,000 pounds in the three and one-half years, while exports of butter totaled 29,000,000 pounds, cheese 103,500,000 pounds, and condensed milk 126,000,000 pounds. Cottonseed, linseed, and other oil products and by-products to be used for feeding cattle, totaled 611,000,000 pounds.

Q.—What are "Farm Loans"?

A.—To relieve farmers from the high interest charges levied by private interests when they need loans, a Federal Farm Loan Act was passed in 1916. It established 12 Federal Land Banks and these banks lend money to the farmers on security which is provided as follows: in any place farmers may form a farm loan association and this association can go to a Federal Loan Bank and obtain loans on mortgages laid on the farm property. These loans may run from 5 to 40 years and are at 6 per cent or less. The Federal Farm Loan Banks get their funds by selling to the investing public bonds secured by the mortgages.

Q.—Has this method been successful?

A.—Apparently most successful. In October, 1917, loans amounted to about $64,000,000, and it was estimated that several hundred million would soon be thus raised and turned back into production by being expended for crops and improvements.

Q.—What was the effect of the war on American agricultural values?

A.—Farm products of the United States reached the unprecedented value of $19,443,849,381 during 1917, an increase of more than $6,000,000,000 over 1916 and almost $9,000,000,000 more than in 1915. The estimate shows crops were valued at $13,610,462,782 and represented 70 per cent of the value of all farm products. Animals and animal products were valued at $5,833,386,599 in 1917, an increase of almost $1,500,000,000 over 1916.

Q.—Which States profited most from the rise in agricultural values?

A.—Value of all farm crops for 1917 by states, not including the value of animals and animal products, shows Illinois first, Texas second, and Iowa third. In 1916 Texas led, with Iowa second and Illinois third.

Illinois is the banner farm crop state. The value of her crops last year exceeded that of Texas, which carried away the honor in 1916. Iowa's crops were slightly under those of Texas in value last year. Iowa was in second place in 1916, with Illinois third.

Q.—How do our States rank agriculturally?

A.—We give the states in geographical order. The number following each state name indicates its rank in agriculture as compared with the rest: Maine 37; New Hampshire 46; Vermont 42; Massachusetts 38; Rhode Island 48; Connecticut 39; New York 12; New Jersey 34; Pennsylvania 13; Delaware 44; Maryland 31; Virginia 22; West Virginia 30; North Carolina 11; South Carolina 15; Georgia 6; Florida 33; Ohio 4; Indiana 8; Illinois 1; Michigan 21; Wisconsin 17; Minnesota 9; Iowa 3; Missouri 5; North Dakota 27; South Dakota 18; Nebraska 7; Kansas 14; Kentucky 16; Tennessee 26; Alabama 25; Mississippi 19; Louisiana 24; Texas 2; Oklahoma 23; Arkansas 20; Montana 35; Wyoming 40; Colorado 28; New Mexico 43; Arizona 45; Utah 41; Nevada 47; Idaho 63; Washington 29; Oregon 32; California 10.

Q.—How much of our increase was new wealth?

A.—The new wealth produced on the farms in 1917 ($19,443,849,381) compares with former years as follows:

	Crops.	Animals and products.
1917	$13,610,462,782	$5,833,386,599
1916	9,054,458,922	4,351,905,089
1915	6,907,186,742	3,868,303,670
1914	6,111,684,020	3,783,276,511
1913	6,132,758,962	3,716,753,549

Q.—When did American agriculture begin to prosper?

A.—In the period following 1897, when prices were just beginning to rise from their preceding generation of declines,

consequent upon the opening up of the great West to surplus grain and animal production.

Q.—Did our agricultural values rise steadily from that time?

A.—Almost without a break. The only pause was in 1911, which produced a smaller crop in value than 1910. The values of all farm produce in 1917 were nearly five times what they were in 1897, twenty years before, while those of animals and their products were four times as large. In the same period, the general average of all commodities rose by 156 per cent; or, in other words, prices in 1917 were one and one-half times what they were twenty years before.

Q.—Did prices for foodstuff to the consumer go up steadily too?

A.—Not quite so steadily. In 1901 there was a drop from the preceding year; in the depressed year 1904 there was another decline, which was not recovered until 1915.

Q.—Is wheat our most valuable crop?

A.—No. In America corn is king. In 1917, corn, with a value of $4,053,672,000, led all other crops.

Q.—Did wheat come next in value?

A.—No. Wheat comes almost last. The crop next in value to corn is cotton, with a value of $1,517,558,000 in 1917. Then come hay, valued at $1,359,491,000; wheat, worth $1,307,427,000, and oats, worth $1,061,427,000.

Q.—Did our live stock increase or decrease after we joined the war?

A.—Live stock in the United States on January 1, 1918, was valued at $8,263,524,000, the Department of Agriculture announced. That was an increase of $1,527,912,000 over the year before.

Q.—How do prices to-day of sugar, eggs, corn, wheat, cotton, butter, beans, cattle, hogs, etc., compare with the prices of Civil War days?

A.—Prices of these foods increased much more rapidly than in this war, averaging then probably 250 per cent more than normal. In Civil War days the price of sugar increased from 5 cents to 35 cents a pound, eggs from 14½ to 46 cents per dozen, corn meal from 3¼ to 8¾ cents per pound, wheat from 94 cents to $2.16 per bushel, cattle from $3.37½ to $9.50 per hundred pounds, butter from 15½ to 55 cents per pound, beans from 3½ to 11½ cents per pound, cotton from 15¼ cents to $1.64 per pound, hogs from $4.18 to $15.60 per hundred pounds.

Q.—What caused the higher prices in Civil War days?

A.—The enormous increases in prices during Civil War days were almost entirely due to the speculative operations and to the inflation of the currency and depreciation of the dollar. No taint was attached to persons who made money out of food speculations in those days. It is also happily true that higher political and commercial ideals by American business men to-day made possible the United States Food Administration which induced business men to voluntarily keep prices down without legal compulsion.

Q.—What commodity increased most in price in Civil War days?

A.—Alcohol, which went from 37 cents to $4.75 per gallon. The same percentage of increase to-day would make alcohol sell for $43.63 per gallon, instead of its present price of $3.75.

Q.—Why does the Food Administration emphasize the saving of meat, wheat, sugar and fats only? Are not potatoes, beans, corn, etc., just as important foods?

A.—Because the first four food products are the most compact food products that exist in large quantities. In shipping food to Europe we must pack every cubic yard of cargo-space with the maximum quantity of food it will hold.

Q.—Was the world's wheat yield in 1916 less than in 1915?

A.—It was about 240,000,000 cwts. less in 1916 than in 1915.

Q.—What was the total grain production of the world in 1916?

A.—Excluding the crops of enemy nations, particulars of which are not available, the total production of wheat, rye, barley, oats and maize in the northern

and southern hemispheres in the year 1916-17 amounted to 243,321,414 tons, a decrease of 50,795,383 tons, compared with 1915, and 19,145,481 tons less than the average for the five years 1911-1915, the percentage decline being in each case 17.3 and 7.3 respectively.

Q.—What is the American wheat supply?

A.—The wheat crop of the United States for 1917 was estimated by the September forecast at 668,000,000 bushels, as compared with 640,000,000 bushels in 1916. Both of these yields are below the five-year average of 806,000,000 bushels. The normal demand for seed and domestic consumption in the United States is about 600,000,000 bushels, which would leave available only 68,000,000 bushels for exportation to the Allies and to neutrals.

Wheat exports for the year ending in June, 1917, were 149,837,427 bushels, of which 144,486,749 went to the Allied powers and to European neutrals. To this must be added 11,942,505 barrels of wheat flour, 7,366,294 of which were sent to Europe.

The needs of the Allies annually, at the lowest conservative estimate, are 550,000,000 bushels of wheat.

THE WORLD'S RAW MATERIALS

Q.—Where is warring America weak in minerals?

A.—The war strength of a country depends upon the developed mineral resources within her own borders.

Our mineral industry is equal to all the war demands upon it in all but seven products. These are: potash, nitrogen, manganese, nickel, tin, platinum and pyrites, while a stringency is felt in regard to mica, graphite and a few lesser minerals.

Q.—How about potash?

A.—Potash is an indispensable fertilizing material. Three years ago, Germany held a world monopoly of this substance. The United States Government, fortunately, through its research bureaus, found sources of domestic supply. As a result, America's potash production, which made a modest bow in 1915, for the first half of 1917 had risen to 14,000 tons, valued at nearly $6,000,000. The greatest single source, supplying one-third, was contributed by the Nebraska Alkali lakes. A further increase is expected from the newly discovered deposits of Searles Lake. Had the war come five years earlier, America would have been involved in a potash famine.

During the year, the United States will produce scarcely more than 12 per cent of her normal potash needs.

Q.—How can we get nitrogen?

A.—Nitrogen is even more important to us than potash, for, aside from its use in agriculture, it forms the basis of all explosives. Chile has supplied the United States with nitrogen for fifty years (from nitrate (guano) deposits), but it may be obtained from the atmosphere and coal.

In countries lacking coal or with abundant water power, the air is the most prolific source of nitrogen. Where coal is plentiful, and where an iron industry requires considerable coke, coal is the most logical source of supply.

Coke is coal from which nitrogen and other volatile constituents have been extracted. Although the latter conditions exist in America, we send $20,000,000 to Chile for nitrogen salts, while we waste in our coke industry that value of nitrogen as well as other valued by-products.

The Government in 1916 authorized a plant to extract atmospheric nitrogen at a cost of $20,000,000. A complete recovery of nitrogen in the coke industry would have more completely placed the United States on an independent basis with regard to its nitrogen needs.

Q.—Where are the Chilean nitrate deposits situated?

A.—In the northern provinces of Tacna, Tarapaca, Antofagasta and Atacama. The first two were taken from Peru in the war of 1879-82. By the terms of the treaty of 1884, Tacna was placed under Chilean authority for ten years only, after the lapse of which period the inhabitants were to decide by referendum whether they wished to remain Chilean or revert to Peru. Chile has consistently blocked any attempt to put the referendum on the ground that all the present inhabitants must vote. Peru insists that only those who lived there when the treaty was made should be consulted. The situation thus developed is somewhat like that which would complicate a referendum in Alsace and Lorraine. A further similarity is caused by the fact that the Germans have developed the iron mines in that province immensely, and to do that have brought in great numbers of Teutons, whose vote would have important weight. The Chileans have developed the huge nitrate deposits, and to do that have brought in Chilean laborers, who would no doubt vote for inclusion in Chile. As the Chilean war against Peru had as object the acquisition of these valuable deposits, the Chileans are not likely to part with them.

Q.—How much saltpeter does Chile export annually?

A.—Nitrate is the chief export of the country. The quantity sent away has steadily increased year by year—1907, 1,650,000 metric tons; 1909, 2,309,000 tons; 1913, 2,600,000 tons. Since the war the export has, of course, fallen off, as Germany, which took more than any other country, was isolated, and could get no supplies. The total value of the 1913 export was $100,000,000, of which some $10,000,000 worth went to Great Britain. The royalty collected by the Chilean Government on the nitrate of soda produced yields about $20,000,000 a year, and is one of the chief sources of national revenue.

Q.—How does ship shortage affect our war material supply?

A.—Very gravely, because, owing to non-development of our own native resources, we depend sadly on all parts of the world for all sorts of basic ores without which our steel and industries are practically helpless. Thus, ferro-manganese, an absolutely essential alloy for high-grade steel, must be brought from Europe and Brazil. Tungsten, necessary for good tool steel, comes from China and South America. Tin comes from England, the Straits Settlements in the Far East and Bolivia. We have to draw our chromite (without which we cannot make perfect armor-plate or projectiles) from South Africa and the South Seas, shipping it sometimes almost around the world to get it. Graphite, which we must have for crucibles in making crucible steel, comes from Africa and India. Mica, indispensable for insulation in electrical apparatus, comes to us from India. We draw zinc from Australia and sulphur, a fundamental for explosives, from China and Europe.

Q.—Could American mines produce all the basic raw materials we need?

A.—Secretary Lane of the Department of the Interior said in 1918 that we import about 2,000,000 long tons a year of minerals which our own mines might produce, if the Federal government gave the necessary assistance. He enumerated among the metals so imported, which are necessary to manufacture war munitions, sulphur, manganese, graphite, tin, mercury, tungsten, antimony, chromite, magnesite and mica. The United States produces some of these, but not in sufficient quantities. It has deposits of others of the enumerated minerals which have not been commercially profitable to work because of their nature. Some of these, Mr. Lane thinks, might be made profitable by the application of very modern scientific methods.

Q.—Where are nickel and platinum found?

A.—New Caledonia, in the South Pacific, produces most of the world's supply of nickel, but Canada has furnished us with a great part of what we need.

The world is very "hard up" for platinum, which we need badly for electric appliances and for other immediate war purposes. Russia had been furnishing 93 per cent of the world's total output before the war, from her gold deposits in the Ural Mountains. This has been cut off. The Sudbury district in Canada has some in its nickel deposits, and there is some in Bolivia.

Q.—What countries exported most coal before war?

A.—The principal coal exports of the world in 1913, including that used for bunker purposes, were: Great Britain, 93,000,000 tons; Germany, 40,000,000; United States, 29,000,000; Austria-Hungary, 9,000,000; Belgium and Canada, about 5,500,000 each; Netherlands, slightly less than 5,000,000; Japan, nearly 4,000,000; British South Africa, 2,500,000, and Australia, 2,000,000.

It must be noted that these figures do not mean that Holland is a coal-exporting country. Holland has a few coal mines but would not send any coal away were it not for the necessity of coaling the ships that call at her ports. Holland is dependent on other countries for coal, as a matter of fact.

Q.—How did the war change the coal situation?

A.—With the cutting off of Germany's export trade, the United States took second rank as a coal exporter, though far behind Great Britain.

Q.—Whence does Holland now draw her coal?

A.—She is obliged to get it from Germany, as England has none to spare; but in normal times she drew three-fourths of her supplies from the coal mines of Great Britain. In those days she required 10,000,000 tons annually. Now, however, she has to do with much less, and many factories have been closed in consequence. Germany uses her coal as a lever to compel the Dutch to send her supplies of food, just as she does with Switzerland.

Q.—What was the total amount of coal exported by all countries before war?

A.—The total amount of coal passing out of the coal producing countries of the world in 1913 was about 200,000,000 tons, of which about 40,000,000 tons was bunker coal, supplied to vessels engaged in international trade for their use on the oceans, while a considerable percentage of that recorded as exports went to the world's coaling stations, where it was supplied to steamers.

Q.—How much of the coal supply is used by ships?

A.—The coal burned by steam vessels on the oceans aggregates in normal times about $200,000,000 a year in value out of a total of nearly $700,000,000 worth passing out of the coal producing countries of the world.

Q.—Do we really waste our coal?

A.—One of the bulletins of the United States National Museum says that the waste that blackens the skies over the American cities using soft coal is in reality convertible into gas, tar, ammonia, benzol, and an endless number of other by-products, such as dyes, medicines, and explosives.

Q.—How much of our coal do we waste?

A.—The Government bulletin on "Coal Products" says:

"Almost one-seventh of our coal is made into coke, so great are the demands of the iron industry, but two-thirds of this coke is produced without regard to saving the valuable products driven off during its manufacture. Therefore, we face the alarming conclusion that only about 4 per cent of the coal mined in the United States yields its full value to society."

Q.—How much coal does France ordinarily consume?

A.—The annual production was about 40,000,000 tons, and the amount imported about 8,000,000 tons. The total consumption thus would appear to have been nearly 50,000,000 tons a year. More than 60 per cent of the coal mined in France came from the Flemish coal basin, the whole of which is now in enemy hands.

Q.—Does Spain produce all the coal she wants?

A.—Not enough has been mined ordinarily to provide all the quantity needed. Ordinarily about 5,000,000 tons were produced, but 7,000,000 tons were required. An agreement was arrived at by which the miners undertook to work two hours extra every day, a special premium being given them. This arrangement has increased the output to more than 7,000,000 tons.

Q.—What is the amount of Chilean coal imports?

A.—The Chileans have to import coal as their own mines do not yield nearly enough for their industrial requirements. Before the war they were importing some $10,000,000 worth. The imports from Great Britain were greater than from any other country. Next came Germany—almost equal—and then the United States, a good way behind.

Q.—What is the annual production of copper in the world?

A.—In the year before the war it was about 800,000 tons, Australia's contribution being about 40,000 tons. America since then has greatly increased her output, which, in 1916, was said to have exceeded 1,000,000 tons.

Q.—What were American copper exports in 1917?

A.—In 1917 copper exports aggregated 1,083,575,360 pounds (more than half a million tons) and they had been running at the rate of more than 2,240,000 pounds per day during February, 1918.

Q.—How much copper did we refine?

A.—The country's refineries produced in 1917 a total of 2,300,000,000 pounds, an increase of 102,600,000 pounds over the output of copper in the preceding year. When the war began in 1914 the refinery capacity of the United States was estimated at 1,778,000,000 pounds a year. Since then additional facilities have been created which should enable the refining works to produce 2,780,000,000 pounds a year.

Q.—Did we use much more copper after we entered the war?

A.—The consumption of copper in 1917 which passed through the refineries of the United States is estimated to have absorbed all the metal prepared for market in the twelve months and nearly 20,000,000 pounds in addition. That is, the stocks of refined copper held over from 1916, which amounted to about 128,000,000 pounds at the end of the year, were not only not increased during 1917, but were reduced to a level in the neighborhood of 100,000,000 pounds.

Q.—What is the monthly copper production of all America?

A.—The copper production of the Western Hemisphere in January, 1918, is estimated to have been approximately 173,000,000 pounds, an increase of 4,000,-

000 pounds over the December output. If this extreme rate of production could be maintained the year around (which is highly improbable) the total output of copper for this hemisphere alone would be more than a million tons in the year.

Q.—Is much copper found in Chile?

A.—At one time Chile was the greatest producer of copper in the world, but her mines have been neglected. The great war demand for copper has, however, caused much activity, and Americans have invested largely.

Q.—Whence does Great Britain get most of her copper?

A.—From the United States, mostly in the form of unwrought copper. Of the total British import in 1914 of 147,700 tons, 94,800 was from the United States.

Q.—Could the Allies get enough gasoline in their own hemisphere?

A.—The need of the Allied nations in Europe for American gasoline was displayed in the January, 1918, figures of exports, reported by the Bureau of Commerce. The amount of gasoline, naphthas and other light refined oil products shipped abroad was 41,686,142 gallons, compared with 35,335,977 in the same month, 1917, and 38,065,244 in January, 1916. Crude oil, fuel oil and residuum, lubricating and illuminating oil exports declined substantially in comparison with the preceding January. Gasoline for export in barrels was advanced 20 points in price by the Standard Oil Company of New York on February 27 last. The price in 1918 was reported at 12.70 cents a gallon when shipped in barrels.

Q.—Does the British Admiralty own oil fields in Southern Persia and Asia Minor?

A.—Yes. It was to protect this source of supply that early in the war a British warship appeared in the Persian Gulf, and a very strong Indian contingent was landed, which speedily took Basra (the old Bassorah of Sinbad the Sailor in the Arabian Nights Tales), the port from which the oil is shipped.

Q.—From which countries is petroleum drawn?

A.—Most of it comes from the United States, but Mexico's yield is steadily increasing. During 1915 the recorded production was as follows:—

	Gallons.
United States	11,806,372,368
Russia	2,879,018,604
Mexico	1,382,241,336
Dutch East Indies	520,245,936
Roumania	505,256,346
British India	310,800,000
Galicia	174,673,758

Q.—How much oil is being obtained from the Mexican oil-fields?

A.—It seems certain that hardly a start has been made toward the actual full development of the Mexican oil-fields, which are in the Tampico district. Fifteen of the wells now operated there have a capacity of 250 million barrels a year. When we note that the total yield on oil in the United States in 1916 was 307 million barrels, we are led to credit the assertion that the full capacity of the Tampico territory probably would equal the output of all other oil regions in the world combined.

Q.—Who owns the Tampico oil-fields?

A.—They belong for the greater part to four great companies, although there are about 275 smaller operators. The big companies are: the Mexican Petroleum, controlling 700,000 acres, incorporated in California; the Aguila, holding 700,000 acres close to the coast, a British corporation, controlled by Lord Cowdray; the Royal Dutch Shell Trading and Transport Company, holding 1,000,000 acres in two blocks, in which Queen Wilhelmina and the Royal Family of Holland are interested, as are the Rothschilds; the Penn Mex Oil Company, owning 600,000 acres just south of Tampico, a Standard Oil concern.

Q.—Does Great Britain depend greatly on imports for raw material?

A.—She depends almost entirely upon them for everything except coal and iron. She produces about 5,000,000 tons of iron from her own ore, and about 4,500,000 from foreign ores; in addition, in ordinary times, she imported about 5,000,000 tons of iron and steel from abroad. She has to import all the copper she needs, and practically all the tin and lead. No cotton is grown in England, or rubber. Silk must all come from overseas, and

almost all the petroleum, too, must cross the water. Much wool is produced, but far more has to be imported, and there is, in ordinary times, very little timber hewn in the United Kingdom. Leather, in the form of hides and skins, comes from abroad, and immense quantities of oil-seeds, fats, gums, and the like, have to be imported. The value of the raw material brought into the country in 1913 was £281,000,000 ($1,400,000,000). In all, some £668,000,000 worth of foodstuffs and raw and semi-manufactured material went into the United Kingdom in 1913.

Q.—How many paper mills are there in Great Britain?

A.—In ordinary times there were 270 mills usually engaged in making paper. Many of these must have closed down owing to the shortage of supplies.

Q.—Does Great Britain ordinarily draw most of her wood pulp from Sweden?

A.—Roughly half. The rest comes from Norway and Canada. Lord Northcliffe owns large forests in Newfoundland, and has an up-to-date pulping plant not far from St. Johns. He turns the pulp into paper in his mills in England, however. By no means all the paper produced in Great Britain is made from wood pulp. Much of it is produced from esparte grass, huge quantities of which come from Algeria in ordinary times.

Q.—Has the English prohibition of wood pulp severely hit the Swedes?

A.—It must have done so. Before the war some 30,000 workers were employed in the wood-pulp mills, and since the struggle began the production of pulp should have increased materially, as the German supplies were no longer available for the world's markets.

Q.—How much wood pulp does Great Britain usually import from Sweden?

A.—About £1,500,000 ($7,500,000) worth annually.

Q.—Is wood pulp the principal material exported to Great Britain from Sweden?

A.—No. It comes sixth on the list. The main thing exported is timber. More than $50,000,000 worth is exported annually, £3,000,000 worth going to Great Britain. The other notable purchase from Sweden is butter. Nearly £2,000,000 worth is sent across the North Sea for British consumption.

Q.—Is there a Controller of the timber of the United Kingdom?

A.—Sir Dampfylde Fuller was appointed by the War Office Controller of Timber in February. He is concerned with the supply of timber for the use of the army and the control of use of timber in the United Kingdom, with a view to effecting economy in its use for all purposes, and the stimulation of the felling of timber in the United Kingdom. Sir Dampfylde was Lieut.-Governor of Eastern Bengal, and has had a long experience in India in various capacities.

Q.—Were the forests of England felled to provide wood for trench building in France and mining in England?

A.—Lloyd George has said that more labor would be required for the felling and sawing of timber than for the mining of iron ore, which was making a very heavy demand on the labor market. He mentioned that Great Britain imported 6,400,000 tons of timber. Of this total 2,000,000 were pit props for the colleries, and the bulk of the remainder was used for military purposes in England and France. We have to remember that freshly felled trees do not give much wood suitable for use in mining, where seasoned wood is required. It is said that none of the trees being felled in British or French forests will be fit to use for any purpose for at least eighteen months after cutting.

Q.—Is it true that wooden clogs are being worn in England?

A.—Owing to the great scarcity of leather wooden shoes came into demand in the United Kingdom. The old industry of making them was revived, and when the Belgian Government attempted to place an order for 100,000 pairs of sabots it was found that the English workers were so busy making wooden shoes for home use that no one could undertake to produce any for other needs.

Q.—How much cotton does Egypt produce?

A.—The Nile yield is about 800,000,000 pounds. In a good year the crops might

possibly be increased by about 10 per cent, but this is the utmost that can be expected with the area under cultivation. It is said that the production could be increased by about 100 per cent if all possible irrigation works are executed in Egypt and in the Upper Nile region, but that result could not be attained for another 25 or 30 years. When it had been attained, however, the agricultural resources of the country would have been developed to their fullest extent, and the limit of yield would have been reached.

Q.—Does Australia lead the world in wool production?

A.—Yes. There are indications, however, that eventually the combined production of Argentine and Uruguay will be greater than hers. Uruguay is a territory where the merino flourishes as well as in Australia. There are said to be about 21,000,000 merinos in all in that country. There also are many in South Africa, but the South African wool is said not to be quite as good as Australian, though some of it brings almost as much in the English markets. Taking the production of 1912, we find that Australasia was responsible for 840,000,000 pounds of the world's wool clip. Argentina for 415,000,000 pounds, Russia for 380,000,000 pounds, the United States for 322,000,000 pounds, the United Kingdom for 145,000,000 pounds, Uruguay for 130,000,000, and South Africa for 112,000,000. In 1904 the wool clip in Argentina was only 330,000,000 pounds.

Q.—What is war tax on excess profits?

A.—Under the act of October 3, 1917, a tax is levied on the net incomes of individuals, partnerships, or corporations which (after certain permitted deductions) are in excess of certain percentages of the invested capital of such individuals, etc. The rates are as follows: 20 per cent of profits not in excess of 15 per cent of the invested capital; 25 per cent of profits, 15 per cent and not in excess of 20 per cent of invested capital; 35 per cent of profits, 20 per cent and not in excess of 25 per cent of invested capital; 45 per cent of profits, 25 per cent and not in excess of 33 per cent of invested capital; 60 per cent of profits, 33 per cent and better of invested capital. In addition, in the case of a trade or business (a term which includes the professions as well) having no invested capital or only a nominal capital, a tax of 8 per cent is levied on all net incomes, of individuals, above $6,000, or of corporations, above $3,000. Finally the tax of 12½ per cent which was levied by the act of September 8, 1916, on the net incomes of all persons, corporations, etc., manufacturing munitions, electric motor boats, submarines, etc., or parts of same, is reduced after January 1, next, to 10 per cent.

Q.—What is the war tax on incomes?

A.—Under the act of October 3, 1917, new income taxes are imposed. The preceding law taxed the net incomes of individuals in excess of $3,000 for an unmarried man and $4,000 for a head of a family. The war tax bill reduces the exemption of unmarried persons to $1,000 and of heads of families to $2,000, but grants an additional exemption of $200 for each dependent child. The surtaxes on incomes of $5,000 and over are the same for all, as follows: Between $5,000 and $7,500, 1 per cent; $7,500 and $10,000, 2 per cent; $10,000 and $12,500, 3 per cent; $12,500 and $15,000, 4 per cent; $15,000 and $20,000, 5 per cent; $20,000 and $40,000, 8 per cent; $40,000 and $60,000, 12 per cent; $60,000 and $80,000, 17 per cent; $80,000 and $100,000, 22 per cent; $100,000 and $150,000, 27 per cent; $150,000 and $300,000, 42 per cent; $300,000 and $500,000, 46 per cent; $500,000 and $750,000, 50 per cent; $750,000 and $1,000,000, 55 per cent; $1,000,000 and $1,500,000, 61 per cent; $1,500,000 and $2,000,000, 62 per cent; over $2,000,000, 63 per cent.

Q.—What is the Trading with the Enemy Act?

A.—The trading with the Enemy Act provides that a person who is "an enemy" or ally of enemy "doing business within the United States" may apply for a license to continue to do business in the United States. This act prohibits and imposes severe penalties on communicating with the enemy, but licenses may be granted for relief from the various "communications."

Q.—Who is officially an enemy of the United States?

A.—(a) An enemy, according to the Trading with the Enemy Act, is "Any individual, partnership, or other body of individuals of any nationality, resident within the territory (including that occupied by the military and naval forces) of any nation with which the United States is at war, or resident outside the United States and doing business within such territory, and any corporation incorporated within such territory of any nation with which the United States is at war or incorporated within any country other than the United States and doing business within such territory.

(b) The government of any nation with which the United States is at war, or any political or municipal subdivison thereof, or any officer, official, agent, or agency thereof.

(3) Such other individuals, or body or class of individuals, as may be natives, citizens, or subjects of any nation with which the United States is at war, other than citizens of the United States, wherever resident, or wherever doing business as the President, if he shall find the safety of the United States or the successful prosecution of the war shall so require, may, by proclamation, include within the term "enemy."

Q.—What is a person holding property of an enemy expected to do?

A.—Any person in the United States who holds or has custody or control of

any property himself or in behalf of an enemy or an ally of an enemy is expected to report the fact to the Alien Property Custodian by written statement under oath, containing such particulars as such custodian may require.

Q.—Is a citizen of the United States bound by a contract with a citizen of one of the Central Powers?

A.—Any contract entered into prior to the beginning of the war, between any citizen of the United States and any citizen of the Central Powers, the terms of which provide for delivery during or after the war, may be abrogated by serving a thirty days' notice in writing, upon the Alien Property Custodian of his district.

Q.—What happens to money belonging to enemies of the United States seized under the Enemy Alien Act?

A.—All money paid to the Alien Property Custodian belonging to the enemy is deposited in the Treasury of the United States and invested by the Secretary of the Treasury in United States bonds. At the end of the war, any claim of an enemy alien or ally of an enemy to any money or other property received or held by the Alien Property Custodian or deposited in the United States Treasury shall be settled as Congress directs. The President and the officials whom he appoints to assist him in administering the Trading with the Enemy Act have very broad authority to seize all property of whatever kind and hold it during the period of the war.

Q.—What was President Wilson's Cabinet when war began?

A.—Secretary of State, Robert Lansing; Secretary of the Treasury, William Gibbs McAdoo; Secretary of War, Newton Diehl Baker; Attorney General, Thomas Watt Gregory; Secretary of the Navy, Josephus Daniels; Secretary of the Interior, Franklin Knight Lane; Secretary of Agriculture, David Franklin Houston; Secretary of Commerce, William Cox Redfield; Secretary of Labor, William Bauchop Wilson.

Q.—Were women called in by the American government to help?

A.—A group of 10 representative women of the United States was appointed by the Council of National Defense, April 21, 1917, to coordinate and centralize the war work of women. The members are Dr. Anna Howard Shaw, of New York, chairman; Miss Ida Tarbell, of New York, vice-chairman; Mrs. Philip N. Moore, of St. Louis, secretary; Mrs. Stanley McCormick, of Boston, treasurer; Mrs. Josiah E. Cowles, of California; Miss Maud Wetmore, of Rhode Island; Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt, of New York; Mrs. Antoinette Funk, of Illinois; Mrs. Joseph R. Lamar, of Georgia; and Miss Agnes Nestor, of Illinois. The organization has State divisions in 48 States, and acts as a mouthpiece of the Government, sending messages to women, stimulating patriotic service, and supplying a channel for effective prosecution of war work. There are 10 departments or sub-committees finding their counterpart in State, county, and civic units, namely, registration, food production and home economics, food administration, women in industry, child welfare, maintenance of existing social service agencies, health and recreation, education, Liberty Loan, and home and foreign relief. Headquarters at 1814 N Street NW., Washington, D. C., is clearing house for war activities through organizations and through individuals.

Q.—Did Congress assume any part in the question of peace terms?

A.—Congress, by common consent, and with the undoubted approval of the nation, avoided discussion for a considerable period after the Declaration of War, and left the matter entirely in the hands of the President.

In the session of Congress which passed the Declaration of War, a few sporadic attempts were made to begin discussion but they went no further than isolated speeches and resolutions, which were tabled.

The next session of Congress also refrained from any discussion until after the famous Message by President Wilson outlining peace terms and war aims. On January 31, 1918, Senators Borah of Idaho and Owen of Oklahoma each offered resolutions covering the subject. The resolutions were supported by speeches, and were referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs.

These may be held to have been the first actual and really important steps by Congress to reassume its share of activity.

Q.—Would the use of a base in South America by a German raider infringe the Monroe Doctrine?

A.—It has been freely asserted that the existence of such a base would be a violation of this Doctrine, but that assertion, like many others, is due to a misconception, or, at best, is a great stretching of the principles laid down in the Doctrine. The Monroe Doctrine, in its original form, only aimed at preventing European Powers from interfering in the territorial arrangements on the continents of America. The scope of the Doctrine has been enlarged from time to time, and it has come to be regarded as meaning that the United States of America has assumedly a protectorate over all the Latin-American Republics, and is responsible for their doings. This is, of course, not the case. The United States might interfere in the event of one of these Republics doing something which brought it into direct conflict with some European country. Only in the danger of such a thing happening could the creation of a base for a German raider in South America distinctly have any connection with the Monroe Doctrine.

Q.—What is the Monroe Doctrine?

A.—Washington recommended that the United States should avoid entangling itself in the politics of Europe. That policy has been consistently followed, and in our own time was reaffirmed formally when the United States delegates signed The Hague Conventions with the proviso that nothing contained therein should be so construed as "to require the United States to depart from its traditional policy of not intruding upon, interfering with, or entangling itself in, the political questions, or policy, or internal administration of any foreign State, nor shall anything contained in the said Conventions be construed to imply a relinquishment by the United States of its traditional attitude towards purely American questions." This "traditional attitude" is the second great American principle, ranking next after Washington's policy. It is known as the Monroe Doctrine because it was officially and fully declared for the first time by President Monroe in 1823. At that time it was feared in America that the combination of European Powers known as the Holy Alliance meant to interfere in South America to restore the Spanish colonies to Spain, these having asserted their independence. The Monroe Doctrine declared that there must be no intervention by foreign powers in the political affairs of independent American States, and also warned off European Powers desirous of founding colonies on the American continents. Originally aimed to prevent the overthrow of independent republics, the Doctrine has become a permanent part of the foreign policy of the United States, and has come to be regarded as a sort of general protectorate over the whole of the New World. In brief, it means that the United States will not tolerate any European interference whatever in any part of the American continent.

Q.—What was the famous Senate bill for creating a War cabinet?

A.—It was a bill made public by the Senate Committee on Military Affairs establishing a War Cabinet to be composed of "three distinguished citizens of demonstrated ability," to be appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate. Its powers were to be very great, both as to advice, investigation, and control.

Q.—What was the attitude of the President regarding the war cabinet proposal?

A.—He objected unqualifiedly and sharply. He declared his objection to any form of interference with the executive conduct of the war.

Q.—When did Secretary Baker make his famous statement before the Senate?

A.—He made this statement before the Senate Committee on Military Affairs on January 28, 1918. It followed charges made by Senator Chamberlain that the war department had failed to do all that it should have done. The Secretary of War had appeared some time before to testify before the Committee, and his statements then had lacked circumstantiality and fullness. The statement of January 28 was one of the most elaborate ever made by an officer of government in this country, and it gave the nation a most vivid and clear picture of the magnitude of the problem confronting the government and people, and of the vast undertakings and efforts that were necessary to conduct the war.

Q.—What was the gist of the secretary's statement?

A.—That while errors had been made, and shortcomings existed, the work of

the War Department as a whole had been extraordinarily good and successful.

Q.—When was the post of Surveyor-General of Army Purchases created, and why?

A.—Secretary Baker announced this appointment on January 25 after Senator Chamberlain's public criticisms. The officer thus created was appointed to be in charge of the procurement and production of all supplies by the five army bureaus, viz., Ordnance, Quartermaster, Signal, Engineer, and Medical. It was to be his duty to co-ordinate such purchases and properly relate the same to industry to the end that the army program be developed under a comprehensive plan which should best utilize the resources of the country.

Q.—Was an army officer appointed to the new post of Surveyor-General?

A.—A civilian was appointed—Edward R. Stettinius, who had been in practical charge of purchases for the Allies during the war while the United States was neutral. He was a member of the firm of J. P. Morgan and Company, having entered it about two years before. He was born in St. Louis in 1865, was graduated from the St. Louis University, and entered business in 1883. From 1906 to 1915 he was president of the Diamond Match Company.

Q.—What new American governmental agencies were created?

A.—Leading agencies were: shipping board, food administration, fuel administration, war industries board, raw materials board, aircraft production board, Allies' purchasing board, war trade board and a director-general of railroads. There was also a board controlling priority of freight shipments.

Q.—What acts, not financial, were passed to authorize war measures?

A.—Following the declaration of war (April 6, 1917), Congress passed, first, an act granting the President authority to take over enemy merchant vessels in American ports. On May 18 there was passed the Selective Draft Act, authorizing the drafting of American citizens into a great National Army, and also bringing the Regular Army to full war strength, besides placing the various National Guards (armed militia) of the States into the Federal service.

Q.—Did other acts confer further authority on the President?

A.—An act, called the "espionage act," gave the Federal Government immensely large powers over the people, and incidentally authorized the President to lay embargoes on exports at his discretion, an authorization that gave the Government enormous powers of control over the nation's and the world's commerce. Then followed a food and fuel bill for exercising control over those great economic necessities. There were also the act regulating trade with the enemy and the law for insuring men in the military and naval service of the country.

Q.—What was the early effect of government operation of the railroads?

A.—After a month of government operation the figures showed that there had been a decided reduction in accumulations of export freight at the seaports, caused by the increased fuelling of ships and by the embargoes placed on certain kinds of shipment.

More than 4,000 freight cars thus were emptied and released for further use. The Regional Director of Railroads received the following detailed report showing the car situation at six North Atlantic ports on January 1, 1918, when the government took the roads out of private control, and on February 1, after a month of government control:

Ports.	Jan. 1.	Feb. 1.	Dec.	P. C.
Boston	1,190	998	192	16.14
New York....	24,971	19,723	5,248	24.02
Philadelphia ..	3,531	3,307	224	6.34
Baltimore	7,164	5,878	1,286	17.95
Newport News.	1,653	1,284	369	22.32
Norfolk	2,592	2,403	189	7.29
All ports ...	41,101	33,593	7,508	18.27

Q.—What is the Council of National Defense?

A.—It was established by Congress in 1916, and consists of: Secretary of War, Newton D. Baker, chairman; Secretary of the Navy, Josephus Daniels; Secretary of the Interior, Franklin K. Lane; Secretary of Agriculture, David F. Houston; Secretary of Commerce, William C. Redfield; Secretary of Labor, William B. Wilson.

Its function as specified in the act of Congress creating it is stated as the "creation of relations which will render possible in time of need the immediate concentration and utilization of the resources of the nation."

Q.—Was there any addition to it?

A.—Yes. The act establishing it provided for an Advisory Commission to be nominated by the council and appointed by the President and for such subordinate bodies as the council saw fit to organize "for its assistance in special investigations." The members of the Advisory Commission were originally:

Daniel Willard, chairman, Transportation and Communication;

Howard E. Coffin, Munitions and Manufacturing (including standardization) and Industrial Relations;

Julius Rosenwald, Supplies (including clothing), etc.;

Bernard M. Baruch, Raw Materials, Minerals, and Metals;

Dr. Hollis Godfrey, Engineering and Education;

Samuel Gompers, Labor, including conservation of health and welfare of workers;

Dr. Franklin Martin, Medicine and Surgery, including general sanitation.

Much of the advisory committee's work has been absorbed by other newer bodies such as the War Industries Board, etc.

Q.—Who purchases supplies for the United States Navy?

A.—The Bureau of Supplies and Accounts purchases stores and issues all supplies for the naval establishment. Paymaster-General Samuel McGowan is the head of this Bureau.

Q.—Was January, 1918, really the coldest month on record?

A.—It was for a great many regions in the United States. It was the coldest month on record for such cities as New York, for instance, where the daily average was 9 degrees below the average for 38 previous years.

Q.—Is America rebuilding the ruined French towns?

A.—In the Alsace district the Americans are assisting notably. Noyon has been adopted by the city of Washington, and is being rebuilt by contributions from the people of that city. The American fund for French wounded has taken full charge of the hamlet of Behericourt, and the Comtesse de Chabrannes has undertaken to rebuild the hamlet of Maucourt. The village of Vitrimont in the Vosges region has been rebuilt by Mrs. Crocker, of California. The place was a desert when she began, but her representative found herself at the head of a small army of eager villagers, who undertook the heaviest tasks of house-building under her leadership. Already a church and rows of attractive two-story houses have risen. Houses, farms, public buildings are all erected according to a plan which gives them a logical grouping.

Q.—Did the stock markets rise in the early part of 1918 because of peace rumors?

A.—There were many minor causes that served to account for advance in market quotations, but presumably these minor causes would not have been sufficient in themselves. While it is not safe to assert unequivocally that the January rise in prices was a reflection of belief that peace was prognosticated, it is certain that with the beginning of actual talk about a possible settlement of the great war, a quiet, steady, slow advance began in prices, and that it continued daily with very few fluctuations.

Q.—Why is America nicknamed Uncle Sam?

A.—After the declaration of war with England in 1812, Elbert Anderson of New York, a contractor, visited Troy, where he purchased a large quantity of provisions. The government inspectors at that place were Ebenezer and Samuel Wilson. The latter was universally known as "Uncle Sam" and the articles passed by him were marked "E. A.—U. S." A humorous fellow, being asked the meaning of the initials, said he did not know, unless it meant "Elbert Anderson and Uncle Sam," alluding to "Uncle Sam" Wilson. The joke became a stock topic and thus "Uncle Sam" was finally adopted as a nickname. It is, accurately speaking, a nickname for the United States Government, not for the nation.

Q.—Does America intern alien enemies?

A.—America has adopted a magnanimous and tolerant attitude toward the subjects of hostile States who are now in this country. A Presidential proclamation issued April 6, 1917, assured them

that as long as they refrain from acts of hostility they would be left undisturbed.

This attitude has been maintained. During the months following the declaration of war, alien enemies (or, to speak more accurately, enemy aliens) were prohibited from entering certain districts, such as water-fronts, camps, etc. A number, guilty of inimical acts or suspected as being potentially dangerous, were interned. In February, 1918, there began a general registration of enemy aliens, with finger-print records, etc.

Q.—Has America the right to intern all enemy aliens, even if they behave themselves?

A.—Yes. Every country engaged in war has the right to imprison all subjects of the hostile country, if it chooses to do so. They may even be put to work under conditions prescribed by The Hague Conventions. The treatment of enemy aliens in any belligerent country is simply a matter of policy.

Q.—Is it permitted for a belligerent to purchase weapons of war from neutrals without let or hindrance?

A.—The laws of neutrality permit this to be done without any interference on the part of neutral Governments. French agents bought revolvers, etc., in Great Britain during the Franco-German war, and the British Government answered the German protests with the statement that no purely mercantile transactions could be considered a violation of neutrality. The Allies purchased huge quantities of war material from the United States, and in reply to Austria's protests President Wilson took the same point of view as did the British Government during the Franco-Prussian war.

Q.—Is German taught in all the public schools throughout the United States?

A.—According to statistics compiled late in 1917 by the Bureau of Education of the Department of the Interior, after inquiries had been sent to the superintendents of many of the elementary schools in the United States, there are only nineteen cities out of 163 of 25,000 population or over reporting to the Department of Education that teach foreign languages below the seventh grade.

Q.—What proportion does German bear in relation to other foreign languages?

A.—In twelve of these cities German is the foreign language taught. In three cities German, French, and Spanish are all taught in the elementary grades. In one city German, Italian, and Polish, while in the three remaining cities the languages taught to the elementary school children are French and Spanish, alone or in combination. In a few cities the foreign language is taught in all grades, from the first to the eighth; in others the instruction does not begin until the fifth or sixth grade. The number of elementary school children taking German ranges from 40 in one city to 22,000 in another.

Q.—What is Pan-Americanism?

A.—For a long time there has been manifested a stronger and stronger feeling that the American republics constitute a group which is more closely bound together than other nations of the world, because of their common ideals and common aspirations—a feeling which has undoubtedly been emphasized by their geographical isolation from other countries. It is the bond of sympathy which draws together the twenty-one republics of our western world and makes of them the American family of nations.

Q.—Did the Government send money to Americans caught in the warring countries?

A.—Yes. The battleship *Tennessee* went in August, 1914, with $2,500,000 in gold for the relief of American citizens in Europe. This money was distributed through the American legations.

Q.—Has our Government an authorized censorship?

A.—Yes. The Trading with the Enemy Bill, passed September 12, 1917, includes a provision for censorship of mail and telegraphic communications with foreign countries. Also, it has an amendment requiring German-language newspapers to publish an English translation of all comment on the war.

SOME PAST CAMPAIGNS

Q.—When was the battle of Waterloo fought?

A.—It was fought on Sunday, June 18, 1815, between Napoleon, with 72,000 men (246 guns), and Wellington, with 67,700 Allies (156 guns). The day was decided by the arrival of Blücher with 50,000 Prussians (104 guns). There were in all only 24,000 British on the field.

Q.—Where is Waterloo?

A.—It is about 10 miles south by east from Brussels. Waterloo is a very small and unimportant place in itself, with only about 3,000 inhabitants.

Q.—Was there a battle of Waterloo in the present war?

A.—No. It was not a strategic point. Napoleon and Wellington fought their battle there only because the British army had concentrated on Brussels. In the present war, no stand was made near Brussels and the Germans entered unopposed.

Q.—What were the losses in the battle of Waterloo?

A.—The British, who only numbered 24,000, lost 2,000 killed and 5,000 wounded. The Allies lost altogether, including these, 4,200 killed, 14,500 wounded, and 4,230 missing. The French loss was more than 40,000 killed, wounded and prisoners, but accurate details have never been obtained.

Q.—How old was Napoleon at Waterloo?

A.—He was only 46. Wellington was the same age; so were Ney and Soult. Crouchy was 49, Murat 44. Nelson died at 47. All these men had achieved their greatest fame before they reached 40. Alexander the Great died when he was 33. Hannibal was 30 when he crossed the Alps. Sir Francis Drake, with a great career behind him, was 48 when he met the Armada.

Q.—Who said that "God is on the side of the biggest battalions"?

A.—Napoleon. It was he also who said that an army "marched on its belly." Nowadays he would, no doubt, slightly alter both these trite remarks, and, instead, would say that "God is on the side of the biggest factories," and that an army "marches on petrol."

Q.—Has war ever produced so much hatred as this one?

A.—Much the same sort of comment about enemies has been made by publicists in time past as is appearing today. The following quotation from Thackeray's work, "The Four Georges," gives some idea of how belligerent nations wrote and spoke during the Napoleonic wars. He says:

"We prided ourselves on our prejudices; we blustered and bragged with absurd vainglory; we dealt to our enemy a monstrous injustice of contempt and scorn; we fought him with all weapons, mean as well as heroic. There was no lie we would not believe; no charge of crime which our furious prejudice would not credit. I thought at one time of making a collection of the lies which the French had written against us, and we had published against them, during the war. It would be a strange memorial of popular falsehood."

Q.—Who were the Huns?

A.—They were a people of Tartar or Ugrain stock, who, three centuries before Christ, appear to have dominated the whole of what is now known as Siberia. They first appeared west of the Volga in 374, and proceeded to attack the then all-powerful Gothic Empire. They were soon supreme between the Danube and the Volga, and expanded through into Persia and Syria. In 446 the mighty "Scourge of God," Attila, began his tremendous drive to the west. Civilization collapsed before his onslaught, and five years later he was outside Paris. There, at the tremendous battle of Chalons-sur-Marne, the combined armies of the Romans, under Aetius, and the Visigoths, under Theodoric, defeated him and saved France.

Q.—Why are the Germans called Huns?

A.—It is a term of opprobrium, and has nothing to do with their race, for the Germans are of entirely different stock. The cruelties and barbarisms of the Huns, combined with their great bravery and ferocity, gave a terror to their name,

which has lasted to this day. A few of them are said to have settled in northern France, and a few in Central Europe. They gave their name to Hungary, which is, however, now peopled by a different race. They were slowly assimilated by the peoples around them, or retired across the Volga, whence they came.

Q.—Which are regarded as the greatest battles of the world?

A.—According to Creasy, there were fifteen "decisive" battles—that is, battles which decided the fate of nations and perhaps of the world. The early ones were: Marathon, where the Greeks defeated the Persians, B.C. 490, and stopped the Asiatic invasion. Syracuse, where, B.C. 413, the Athenian invaders of Sicily were routed. Arbela, where Alexander the Great finally crushed the Persians, B.C. 331. Metaurus, where the Romans defeated Hasdrubal, who was hastening to the aid of the Carthaginians under Hannibal, B.C. 207. (As a military achievement, Hannibal's victory over the Romans at Cannae was much greater, but the victory at Metaurus was the beginning of the end of Carthage.) Teutoburg, where, in A.D. 9, the German Arminius defeated the Roman legions under Varus, and freed Germany from the Roman yoke.

Q.—Was one of the decisive famous battles fought in Chalons, France?

A.—Chalons, where the last of the Roman generals, Aetius, and Theodoric, King of the Visigoths, defeated the Huns under Attila, "The Scourge of God," A.D. 451. After Chalons, the Hunnish invasion ebbed, and Attila's vast empire crumbled away after his death, two years later. Then came another great battle in France, the battle of Tours, where Charles Martel, Duke of the Austrasian Franks, defeated the Saracens under Abderrahman, in 732, and freed France and Europe from Moslem domination. After these came Hastings, where Norman William defeated Saxon Harold, in 1066, and laid the foundations for the present British Empire, and Orleans, where in 1429 Jeanne d'Arc defeated the English and delivered France.

Q.—What was the greatest sea battle?

A.—The fight with the Spanish Armada, which, in 1588, was destroyed by the British fleet. Spain's dominion of the sea was broken, and after that her mighty empire began to crumble.

Q.—What were the other battles?

A.—Blenheim, where, in 1704, Marlborough, commanding German, British and Dutch troops, defeated the French and thus destroyed the vast fabric of power built up by Louis XIV. It is interesting to recall that the Irish Brigade, fighting for the French, almost turned defeat into victory. Pultowa, where Peter the Great defeated Charles of Sweden in 1709. This victory marked the entry of Russia into history as a European power, and with it began the decline of Sweden. It also marked the beginning of rivalry between Slav and Teuton, one of the deeper excuses for the world-devastating struggle of our day. Saratoga, where, in 1777, the Americans, under Gates and Arnold, defeated the British under Burgoyne and captured his army. Though few men were engaged, the victory was immediately important. Valmy, where the armies of the French Republic won their first victory in 1792. The battle saved Paris and the French democracy. Waterloo, where, in 1815, the British, Dutch, Brunswickers and Belgians, under Wellington, and the Prussians, under Blücher, defeated Napoleon, and completed the destruction of the mighty empire he had built up. At that time a von Bulow, by the way, commanded one of the Prussian army corps.

Q.—How do numbers of ancient armies compare with to-day?

A.—There is no comparison at all. Never before in the history of the world had armies so been used. The largest armies of modern times before this war were the American armies of the Civil War. When the Civil War ended there were 2,000,000 Northerners and 1,000,000 Southerners under arms. In the Franco-Prussian War the Germans had 1,124,000 soldiers, the French 1,000,000. At Waterloo, Napoleon had 72,000 men, Wellington 67,700, and Blücher 50,000. Napoleon's Grande Armée, which invaded Russia, crossed the border 600,000 strong. Only 20,000 men returned. In ancient times Hannibal invaded Italy with 60,000 men. Alexander the Great conquered the known world with 50,000. Charles Martel smashed the Saracens and saved France from Mohammedan domination with an army of 20,000. The Turks were defeated by the brilliant Pole, Pan Sobieski, before the gates of Vienna, in 1683, Europe on that occasion being saved

by an army 70,000 strong. At Marathon the Greeks numbered at most 10,000, the Persians 100,000. At Pultowa there were 12,000 Swedes and 12,000 Cossacks against 60,000 Russians.

Q.—When was gunpowder first used?

A.—So far as is known, cannon were first employed by the Germans at the siege of Oividale in Italy in 1331. Edward III used artillery at the battle of Crecy in 1346, but it is recorded that there were only 12 artillerymen and gunners in the ordnance establishment of the King. At the siege of Harfleur, 1,415 guns were used by Henry V, but in those days cannon were confined almost exclusively to siege operations. It was not until the Hussite Wars, 1419-25, that field guns were used with effect in open warfare. Field guns were also used in the Wars of the Roses. The Turks proved themselves very formidable in the use of siege artillery, and utilized great numbers of guns in the siege of Constantinople, in 1453.

THE RED CROSS OF MERCY

Q.—Just what is the Red Cross?

A.—The American Red Cross is an association of more than 3,600,000 Americans, forming local chapters, branches, and auxiliaries and governed by a central committee in Washington, D. C. Its accounts are audited by the War Department. Any resident or citizen of the United States may become a member by sending his address, and dues to the American Red Cross, Washington, D. C., or to the chapter in his neighborhood. It is a relief clearing house, permanent, responsible, and experienced. It is a semi-governmental agency for the collection and distribution of money and supplies for relief purposes.

Q.—What did the American Red Cross do with the money it collected?

A.—On February 3, 1918, the Red Cross War Council published a statement in Washington showing that up to January 9, 1918, there had been appropriated a total of $44,657,795.99 for foreign relief, $2,612,532.60 for United States relief, and $24,323,181.12 for supplies either for foreign shipment or for distribution or resale to chapters in this country.

This latter item included $7,063,649.12, which was also included in the $30,519,259.60 for work in France, as well as $11,288,417 for material for resale to chapters. It was thus to be considered as a working fund and as a liquid asset rather than an expenditure. All appropriations from the Red Cross War Fund up to Jan. 9, 1918, amounted to $77,843,435.25. Including appropriations from the general fund and the miscellaneous fund, the total appropriations were $79,450,727.35.

Q.—How much of the money went for expenses?

A.—The total appropriation for administration at National Headquarters and at division headquarters amounted to $1,289,292 during six months. This included $365,000 for divisional administration expenses and $250,000 donated for telegraph and cable service by the Western Union Telegraph Company.

These appropriations did not come out of the War Fund. They were more than covered from the portion of membership dues received at National Headquarters.

In other words, no expenses of administration in the United States were paid for out of the Red Cross War Fund. All administration was more than met by membership dues. Thus, every dollar contributed for relief went to relief.

Q.—Is it true that many very high salaries are paid by the Red Cross?

A.—The average salary paid at the National Red Cross Headquarters is less than $65 a month. The average salary of Government departments at Washington from secretary to janitors is more than $110 a month. The Red Cross Division managers, as well as many of their assistants, are volunteers, but it is necessary to employ on salaries stenographers and other clerical help. The same is true at National Headquarters, where there are more than 75 volunteers, whose salaries at the figures these men are accustomed to receive would increase the pay-roll hundreds of thousands of dollars annually. Appreciating the necessity of having the best possible administration of Red Cross affairs, the Red Cross, in one case, pays $5,000, in another, $6,000, and in a third, $7,500.

Q.—How was the money for foreign relief apportioned?

France	$30,519,259.60
Belgium	1,999,631.00
Russia	751,940.87
Roumania	2,617,398.76
Italy	3,146,016.00
Serbia	871,180.76
Great Britain	1,703,642.00
Other foreign countries	2,536,300.00
For prisoners, etc.	343,627.00
Equipment and expenses	68,800.00
Total foreign relief	$44,657,795.99

Q.—What was the "United States relief"?

United States—	
Army base hospitals	$54,000.00
Navy base hospitals	32,000.00
Medical and hospital work	503,000.00
Sanitary service	364,500.00
Camp service	996,715.00
Miscellaneous	662,317.60
Total U. S. relief	$2,612,532.60

Q.—What did the Red Cross do for France?

A.—On January 27, 1918, the American Red Cross announced that the total amount of money appropriated for relief work in France from the date of the American declaration of war was $30,519,259. Additional appropriations of $7,063,649 had been made to purchase supplies to go to France.

A little more than 14 millions of these sums was for military relief, 9½ millions for civilian relief and the rest for various bureaus and expenses. This sum is the largest ever expended by one nation for relief activities in another.

Q.—How does the Red Cross spend the money specifically?

A.—The public's money given to the Red Cross is being spent in France and other countries in the war for such purposes as the following: infirmaries and rest stations for the sick; disinfecting rooms and dormitories for the soldiers; for hospital equipment, medicines and dressings (nearly 4,000 of the 6,000 hospitals in France are now receiving supplies from the American Red Cross); for food for the sick and needy; for ambulances for the wounded; for motor trucks which make the American Red Cross independent of the overburdened railways in France; for medical research; for the building of homes and schools for orphans and the helpless; for the relief of destitute families; to fight tuberculosis, the deadliest enemy of the civil population of France; for general relief work in Belgium, and for other purposes.

Q.—What was the ambulance service under the American Red Cross in France?

A.—Eliot Norton, director in America of the Harjes-Norton (American Red Cross) Ambulances in France, makes the following statement:

"When the American Army took over, in August, 1917, the ambulances which had been operated in France by the American Red Cross and which were popularly known as the Harjes-Norton Sections, there were 648 men in this service. Of these, 210 were over or under military age, or otherwise exempt from military service. This left 438. Of these, 283, or 65 per cent, are known to have enlisted, without waiting to be drafted, in one branch or another of the army, by November 14. Since then at least another 15 per cent have done or are in process of doing the same thing—viz., enlisting without waiting to be drafted."

Q.—How many American Red Cross nurses are in active service?

A.—More than 3,000 Red Cross nurses are in active service, 2,000 abroad, and they are volunteering at the rate of 1,000 a month.

Q.—What were some of the big organizations formed to help European war-sufferers?

A.—Apart from the Red Cross there were: National Allied Relief, which, up to 1918, had collected more than $1,000,000; Belgian Relief Fund, approximately $1,100,000 to 1918; New York Committee of the Fatherless Children in France, $329,000; American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, more than $7,000,000; Franco-Serbian Hospital; American Military Hospital in Paris; Cardinal Mercier Fund (for the destitute in Belgium); Polish Fund; Lafayette Fund; Commttee of Mercy; American Girls' Aid (to clothe French sufferers); French Tuberculosis War Victims' Fund; Charitee Maternelle de Paris; Duryea War Relief; War Babies' Cradle; Emergency Italian Refugee Committee; Comforts Committee of Christian Scientists; American Committee for Training Maimed Soldiers of France; the Secours National Fund (for women and children of France).

Q.—What branches are open for volunteer war work?

Voluntary Marine Corps Reserve.
Voluntary Naval Reserve.
Serve without retainer pay and without uniform gratuity.
All forms of Red Cross work.
Reconstruction work in France.
"Y. M. C. A." work.
All "Labor Reserve" work.
Certain positions in the "Belgian Relief Committee's" work.
If you are qualified, *all* war work.

WHO'S WHO IN ROYALTY

Q.—Is Belgium's king the son of Leopold?

A.—Albert I (born 1875), King of the Belgians, came to the throne December 23, 1909, in succession to his uncle, Leopold II. Becoming heir apparent at the age of 17 by the death of his elder brother, he passed through the educational steps regularly marked out for Belgian royalty—the military school, extensive travels, participation as member of the Senate in national politics.

Q.—How long has the Kaiser ruled?

A.—William (Wilhelm) II, King of Prussia and German Emperor, has ruled since June 18, 1888. William II's grandfather, William I, achieved German unity, established the German Empire, and greatly influenced the ideals of his grandson. William II's mother was the eldest daughter of Queen Victoria of England. At his accession he declared to the army: "So we are bound together—I and the army—so we are born for one another, and so we shall hold together indissolubly, whether, as God wills it, we are to have peace or storm." After forcing Bismarck's resignation on March 18, 1890, William II telegraphed to the Grand Duke of Weimar: "To me has fallen the post of officer of the watch upon the ship of state. We shall keep the old course; and now full steam ahead!" Endowed with an active mind and extraordinary energy, he sought to lead the way in political, social, and economic matters, to furnish the inspiration in literature, art, and science, and to develop the intensely modern materialistic Germany, with its overwhelming discipline, its progressive efficiency, and its expanding power beyond the seas.

Q.—How old is he?

A.—He was born Jan. 27, 1859, and became Emperor June 15, 1888.

Q.—Are the Hohenzollerns an ancient dynasty?

A.—Very old, although it was not until 1701 that one of the family became King of Prussia. The castle of Hohenzollern is said to have been built early in the ninth century, but the first historical mention of the family was when Burkhard and Wezil, counts of Zollern, were killed in 1061. A direct descendant of Burkhard became Burgrave of Nuremburg in 1192. The divison of the House of Hohenzollern dates from the sons of this Conrad, who divided his lands between them. The present Emperor of Germany belongs to the younger branch, the King of Roumania to the elder. On the whole, the Burgraves of Nuremburg were good rulers, although they took their full share in the turbulent doings of the Middle Ages. They appear to have encouraged commerce and protected the Jews. Having inherited Brandenburg, Frederic in 1427 sold his right as Burgrave to the town of Nuremburg, and from that time the family of Hohenzollern is identical with that of Brandenburg, until 1701, when the Elector Frederick became King of Prussia.

Q.—Is it true that Emperor William II was appointed Admiral of the English fleet?

A.—Yes. On August 5, 1889, he was created Admiral of the English fleet by Queen Victoria.

Q.—How many sisters has the Kaiser, and to whom are they married?

A.—He has four sisters. The two eldest and the youngest are married to German princes. The third, Sophie, is the wife of King Constantine of Greece. He has only one brother, Prince Heinrich. The Kaiser has six sons and one daughter, who recently married the Duke of Brunswick.

Q.—When did George V ascend the throne?

A.—George V (born 1865), the present King of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British lands beyond the seas, came to the throne at the death of his father, Edward VII, in 1910.

Q.—What was the family name of King George V before he changed it to Windsor?

A.—King George I was a Guelph, and as his dynasty still reigns in England King George V presumably is held to be a

Guelph also. The descent, however, came through the female line—Queen Victoria—whose husband, Prince Albert, was a member of the Wettin family, from which many of the Royal Houses of Europe have sprung. Had he not been of royal blood, King George V would be regarded therefore as a Wettin, not as a Guelph.

It is interesting to note that the name Guelph was associated more particularly with Italy than with Germany, and for centuries the feud between this house and the Ghibellines raged throughout northern Italy. In fact, Guelph is held to be the Italianized form of Welf, and Ghibelline is the Italian name for Waiblingen. The feud is said to have originated in 1140 in a war between Conrad III, King of Germany, and Welf, Count of Bavaria, whose soldiers used the battle-cry, "Hie Welf." To this the King's men replied with the shout of "Hie Waiblingen," one of the titles of Conrad, who resided at a castle of that name.

Q.—How did the present Austrian Emperor succeed to the throne?

A.—The Archduke Charles Francis Joseph became Charles I, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, on the death of his great-uncle, Emperor Francis Joseph, on November 21, 1916. He is the eldest son of the late Emperor's nephew, Otto, the younger brother of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, murdered at Serajevo on June 28, 1914. Charles I married, in 1911, Princess Zita, of the Bourbon House of Parma, and has two sons. He received a democratic education in the public schools of Vienna, which shocked sticklers at etiquette of the Viennese Court, but which has secured him much popularity with his subjects. It also appears to have impressed upon his mind the importance of constitutional government and democratic reforms for Austria. His first public utterance as Emperor made a very favorable impression in the constitutional countries of Europe by his apparent sincerity and by his expressed determinaton to observe the forms of constitutional rule.

Q.—Is Roumania's king a Hohenzollern?

A.—Ferdinand I (born 1865), who became King of Roumania in succession to his uncle Charles I on October 11, 1914, is a member of the Catholic branch of the German Hohenzollerns.

Q.—What race is King Peter?

A.—Peter I (born 1844), King of Serbia since June 15, 1903, is a member of the Karageorgevitch family. He ascended the throne as the result of a palace revolution, in which the rival dynasty, the Obrenovich, was exterminated. Owing to his feeble health in recent years, King Peter has practically abdicated, and the Crown Prince Alexander has acted as regent.

Q.—Is Constantine still a king?

A.—No. He abdicated. Constantine I (born 1868) married Sophia, sister of the German Emperor, and, partly because of her influence, attempted to manipulate Greek policy in the interest of Germany. On June 11, 1917, he was forced to abdicate by Great Britain, France, and Russia, who justified their action on three facts: (1) Greece had been created a kingdom in 1830 through their intervention; (2) they had placed the present dynasty on the throne in 1863; (3) they had guaranteed a constitutional government. The new King, Alexander, second son of Constantine, invited M. Venizelos to resume office and consented to the reassembling of the Parliament, dissolved in 1915.

Q.—When was the ex-Czar born?

A.—Nicholas II was born in 1862. He ascended the throne October 20, 1894, and married Alexandra, Princess of Hesse, the same year. Nicholas inaugurated his reign by a rigorous repression of all liberal movements and then embarked on a policy of adventure in the Far East, which ended in the war with Japan (1904-5) and the defeat of Russia. During the war a revolutionary movement manifested itself at home, which, culminating in the general strike of October, 1905, forced the Czar to grant a constitution. But Nicholas distrusted the liberals and gave the bureaucracy a free hand in crushing liberal movements. At the beginning of the European war the Czar proclaimed the solidarity of throne and people, thereby securing a considerable measure of popularity; but once again, he relied too exclusively on the bureaucracy, with disastrous results, for these reactionaries soon lost interest in the war, and when the Czar refused to displace them he was compelled by the revolutionaries to abdicate, March 15, 1917.

Q.—Was Francis Joseph a Hapsburg?

A.—Yes. Francis (Franz) Joseph (1830-1916), late Emperor of Austria and

King of Hungary, came to the throne on December 2, 1848, when the polyglot lands of the Hapsburg monarchy were on the point of dissolution. His task during his entire reign was essentially dynastic, the holding together of his dominions. Under his rule the Austrian Provinces in Italy, except Trentino and Trieste, were lost to the new Kingdom of Italy (1859-1866) and Austrian influence in Germany was destroyed by Prussia in the war of 1866. But in his task of holding together the Austrian dominions proper he secured a relative success. Hungary was pacified by the agreement of 1867, which granted autonomy in local matters and an equal share in the government of the monarchy. Opinions differ as to the native ability of Francis Joseph, but it would at least appear that long study of men had given him great fitness in dealing with the peculiar problems of Austria-Hungary. His private life was a pilgrimage of sorrow. His wife was murdered by an anarchist, his son perished in an obscure affair, and lastly, his nephew and heir was murdered at Serajevo in 1914.

Q.—Is Bulgaria's ruler king or Czar?

A.—He is a Czar. Ferdinand I (born 1861) was the younger son of the Prince of Saxe-Coburg, and in 1887 was elected by the Bulgarians to be their prince. During the next years his policy was aimed at two things—(1) to promote the well-being of Bulgaria, and (2) to create an army strong enough to make Bulgaria the leading State in the Balkans. In both of these aims he was highly successful; in 1912 Bulgaria was a prosperous State, and in the first Balkan war the Bulgarian army proved its worth.

Q.—Where was Queen Alexandra, the Queen-mother, born?

A.—She was born on September 1, 1844, in Denmark, being the eldest daughter of King Christian IX of Denmark. Her brother, Frederick VII, was King of Denmark for six years. The present sovereign, Christian X, is her nephew. Another brother was King George of Greece. Thus ex-King Constantine is her nephew and a first cousin of King George of England.

Q.—What relation is the Emperor of Germany to King George?

A.—Cousin. The Emperor's mother was the eldest daughter of Queen Victoria, and sister of Edward VII. The Emperor is, in fact, as much English as King George, whose mother was a Danish Princess.

Q.—What nationality is the Prince Consort of the Queen of Holland?

A.—He belongs to the Mecklenburg family, being an uncle of the present Grand Duke of Mecklenberg-Schwerin. The Grand Ducal House of Mecklenberg is the only reigning family in western Europe of Slavonic origin, and claims to be the oldest sovereign house in the western world. In their full title the Grand Dukes style themselves Princes of the Wends. Their genealogical table begins with Niklot, who died in 1160, and comprises 25 generations.

Q.—Is the Queen of Roumania an English Princess?

A.—She is so regarded, being a daughter of one of the sons of Queen Victoria, Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, who, in 1893, became Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha in succession to the brother of the Prince Consort. Prince Alfred married the Grand Duchess Marie Alexandrovna of Russia, and had four daughters—the present Queen of Rumania being the eldest—and one son, who predeceased him. The Duke of Connaught became heir to the Dukedom of Saxe-Coburg when Prince Alfred died, but he and his son renounced the succession. It then passed to the son of the late Duke of Albany, Queen Victoria's youngest son. This son, a grandson of Queen Victoria, and brother of Princess Alexander of Teck, and therefore the brother-in-law of Queen Mary, was recently deprived of his English titles by King George, on the ground that he was a German Prince. The Queen of Roumania is his cousin. Other first cousins of her are King George, the Queen of Spain, the Queen of Norway, the Crown Princess of Sweden, Prince Arthur of Connaught, the Kaiser, the ex-Queen of Greece, Prince Henry of Prussia and Princess Henry, the ex-Czarina, Princess Louise of Battenberg, and Prince Albert of Schleswig-Holstein.

Q.—Is the wife of the ex-Czar Nicholas a German princess by birth?

A.—She is almost always spoken of as a pure German, but though she was born in Hesse, her mother was Princess Alice of England, the favorite daughter of Queen Victoria, sister of Edward VII,

an aunt of King George V. Her sister married Prince Louis of Battenburg, who was First Sea Lord when the war broke out. Her father was Grand Duke Ludwig of Hesse.

Q.—Is it true that the Kaiser, by virtue of his English mother, has a claim to the British throne?

A.—Certainly not. Although women may sit on the throne of England, the male members of the family inherit first. Consequently, although the Kaiser's mother was the eldest child of Queen Victoria, she could have come to the throne only if her brothers, King Edward VII, the Duke of Edinburgh, and the Duke of Connaught had died. Had they all died, their children would have succeeded to the throne of Great Britain before the children of the Empress. Far away from the throne of England as he is, the young son of the King of Norway, whose mother is King Edward's daughter, is nearer to it than is the Kaiser.

Q.—Was Hanover ever under British rule, and for what period of time?

A.—Hanover was never under British rule, but an Elector of Hanover, George Louis, became King George I of Great Britain and Ireland in 1714. From that time until 1837 the Kings of England were Electors, and, later, Kings of Hanover as well, but Hanover was not ruled from London, any more than the United Kingdom was ruled from Hanover. British Ministers always took care to keep the interest of Great Britain distinct from those of their King's other kingdom on the Continent. Because of this connection with England, however, Hanover had a bad time before, during, and after the Napoleonic wars. It was regarded as a vulnerable outpost of Great Britain.

Q.—Did Hanover fight Prussia?

A.—The Hanoverians fought against Prussia, in 1743, were allied with Frederick the Great during the Seven Years' War, and in 1757 were compelled to abandon their country to the French. Next year, thanks to English gold, the French were cleared out. Hanoverian troops fought with the Allies against France from 1793 to 1795, when a treaty between France and Prussia forced neutrality upon them. The Prussians occupied the country in 1801, on the suggestion of Napoleon, but two years later the French were again in occupation. After Jena, Napoleon divided Hanover in two. The southern half he added to the Kingdom of Westphalia, and the northern to France. With his final defeat, Hanover became again independent.

Q.—When was Hanover separated from the British throne?

A.—When William IV died in 1837 and was succeeded by Queen Victoria, the sovereign of Great Britain ceased to be also ruler of Hanover, because under the dynastic laws of Hanover a woman was not allowed to ascend that throne. Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, obtained the succession, therefore, instead of Queen Victoria. The two crowns had been united for 123 years. The growing power of Prussia was a bitter thing to the Hanoverians, and, in the war between the former and Austria, blind King George V of Hanover threw in his lot with the Austrians. He was defeated in the field, and Hanover was formally annexed to Prussia in 1866.

Q.—How are the rulers of Europe inter-related?

A.—King George is first cousin of the ex-Czar and also of the Czarina. He is first cousin of the King of Denmark, brother of the Queen of Norway, first cousin of the Queen of Spain; of the ex-King of Greece, of the Duke of Brunswick (who married the Kaiser's daughter in 1913); of the Duke of Coburg, and is related to many other reigning princes of Germany, now in the field. The King of Italy and the King of Serbia both married daughters of the King of Montenegro, other daughters of that monarch marrying German and Russian princes. Ferdinand of Bulgaria is a nephew of Prince Albert, King George's grandfather. King Albert of Belgium is closely related to the Hohenzollerns, and Saxe-Coburgs, and the Bavarian Royal House. The Queen of Holland is a Princess of Nassau, and married Prince Henry of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, whose niece married the Crown Prince of Germany. The King of Sweden is a grandson of Napoleon's Marshal, Bernadotte, and married the daughter of the Grand Duke of Baden. The Emperor of Austria is the head of the House of Hapsburg, with relatives in every Court in Europe. The King of Spain belongs to that House.

Q.—How many kings have reigned in Prussia since Frederick the Great?

A.—Six. The first King of Prussia was Elector Friedrich of Brandenburg. He assumed the crown as Friedrich I in 1701. He was followed by Friedrich Wilhelm I in 1713. Then came Friedrich II (Frederick the Great) in 1740. He was followed by Friedrich Wilhelm II in 1786, then came Friedrich Wilhelm III in 1797. (This is the King who fought Napoleon.) Friedrich Wilhelm IV followed in 1840, then Wilhelm I in 1861. He became German Emperor in 1871. His son, Friedrich III, succeeded in 1888 and reigned for three months. His son, the present Kaiser Wilhelm II, began his reign in 1888.

Q.—What was the so-called "Three-Emperor Year"?

A.—1888. Three Emperors succeeded each other in Germany that year, owing to death. Wilhelm I, his son Friedrich III, and the present Kaiser Wilhelm II.

Q.—Who is the wealthiest sovereign in the world?

A.—The Mikado. His revenues, however, are administered by the Elder Statesmen. He owns about 5 million acres, more than one-twentieth of the area of Japan. He holds shares in the Bank of Japan, Yokohama Specie Bank, Industrial Bank, and the Shipping Company Nippon Yusen Kaisha. His land holdings probably reach 500 million dollars and his industrial holdings 250 millions. The German Kaiser's property is believed to aggregate about 125 millions in value. Both Kaiser and Mikado have to pay many pensions and other grants out of this income.

Q.—Does the Belgian Royal Family still reside in Belgium?

A.—The village capital of La Panne shelters the royal family. It is in that ever famous little northwestern corner which for two years and a half has been all of the kingdom of Belgium under royal rule.

Q.—Is ex-King Constantine of Greece a great soldier?

A.—Dr. Dillon called him the world's greatest living strategist, but that is no doubt a great exaggeration. Still there is the fact that he led the Greeks to victory in both Balkan wars, and it is due to his military achievements that he had such great influence in Greece.

Q.—What are the incomes of European monarchs?

A.—The ruling kings get certain grants from the State, and in addition most of them have large private estates, which bring them in great incomes. King George gets most of his money not because he is King of England, but because he is Duke of York, of Lancaster, etc. Each monarch has a civil list paid him by the State, and out of this he has to pay for his various establishments and make allowances to sons, daughters and other members of his family. In England special grants are made by the State to members of the Royal Family. Queen Alexandra gets £70,000 ($350,000) a year, the Duke of Connaught £25,000 ($125,000) annually, and some half-dozen others get £6,000 ($30,000) a year each. The Prince of Wales gets about £90,000 ($450,000) a year revenue from the Duchy of Cornwall. The revenue the King draws from his Duchy of Lancaster is about £70,000 ($350,000) a year. The civil lists of the reigning sovereigns were as follows:

Czar of Russia.....	$8,000,000
Emperor of Austria.....	4,710,000
German Emperor.....	3,850,000
King of England.....	3,080,000
King of Italy.....	3,000,000
King of Belgium.....	660,000
King of Greece.....	400,000
Queen of Holland.....	400,000
Czar of Bulgaria.....	400,000
King of Sweden.....	391,250
King of Denmark.....	275,000
King of Serbia.....	240,000
King of Roumania.....	500,000
King of Norway.....	190,000

WAR'S WHO'S WHO IN FIGHTERS

Q.—Was General Wood a doctor at first?

A.—Major-General Leonard Wood, wounded early in 1918 by a gun-explosion in France, served through the Geronimo Apache campaign in the American southwest as a "contract surgeon"—meaning that he was not regularly in the service. He was soon made a lieutenant and was one of the captors of Geronimo. In the war with Spain he was Lieutenant-Colonel of the Rough Riders. He became Brigadier-General, won great fame for his work in regenerating the city of Santiago-de-Cuba, and was made Major-General when Roosevelt became President. He then served in the Philippines(Governor of Mindanao and Commander of the Department of the Philippines) and became Chief of Staff of the U. S. Army later.

Q.—Was General Joffre in the Franco-Prussian War?

A.—General Joseph Jacques Cesaire Joffre (born 1852) was second-lieutenant during the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-71, commanding a battery in the siege of Paris. He served with distinction in Asia and Africa. Appointed chief of the general staff of the French Army in 1911, he assumed chief command at the beginning of the war. He was succeeded in active supreme command at the end of 1916, after two and a half years, by General Nivelle, whose reputation was made in the defense of Verdun, but who was soon superseded by General Petain. General Joffre was then made marshal of France, and is now chief military adviser to the French Government.

He was a popular hero in America in 1917 when he was here as the head of the French mission.

Q.—Who was Lord Kitchener?

A.—The foremost British soldier of modern times, and at the time of his death beyond doubt the most dominant personality in the British Empire. His achievements—the conquest of the Sudan, the completion of the South African campaign, administration of Egyptian affairs, and, above all, the building up of a vast British fighting force for Britain's greatest war—place him in the front rank of the world's great men, as a soldier, administrator and military organizer. He was drowned in the sinking by mine or submarine of the British warship *Hampshire* off the western coast of the Orkney Isles June 5, 1916, while on his way to a consultation in Russia regarding details of the Allied offensive of 1916. His body was never recovered.

Q.—What was Beatty's command in the Jutland fight?

A.—Sir David Beatty, who was made Commander of the Grand Fleet of the British Navy in succession to Sir John R. Jellicoe, was present and played a gallant part in the battle of Jutland in 1916 as commander of the First Battle Cruiser Squadron. In 1901 he married a daughter of Marshall Field, of Chicago.

Q.—Who was the chief of the English Navy when war began?

A.—Admiral Sir John R. Jellicoe (born 1859). He had seen service in all parts of the world, and in August, 1914, was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Fleet. He commanded in the battle off Jutland in 1916. He relinquished his place to Sir David Beatty, becoming First Sea Lord at the Admiralty, which place he retained till nearly 1918.

Q.—Who succeeded Admiral Jellicoe as First Sea Lord?

A.—Jellicoe was succeeded by Vice-Admiral Sir Rossyln Wemyss, who stepped into his new appointment on December 26, 1917. Wemyss commanded the squadron which in the early part of 1915 protected the landing of the troops in Gallipoli. He is 53 years of age and entered the Navy in 1877.

Q.—Is Petain really a great general?

A.—He is. Verdun is by no means the first victory he has to his credit. He was a colonel when the war began, but was at once put in command of a brigade, and was General of Division before the battle of the Marne began. He was thus mentioned in the army order of September 21, 1914:—"Petain, General commanding the Sixth Division of Infantry, has, by his example, his tenacity, his calm under fire, his incessant foresight, his continual

intervention at the right moment, obtained from his division during fourteen days of consecutive fighting, a magnificent effort, resisting repeated attacks night and day, and the fourteenth day, in spite of his losses, repelling a very violent final attack."

Q.—What else did he do?

A.—He was placed in command of an army corps, and later a division of Moroccan troops joined him. He was then ordered to take Carency and pierce the German front. After three days' preparation he did so, and broke clean through the enemy lines, so it is reported. So impossible had his colleagues thought success to be that they had not the necessary reserves available. Consequently, instead of being a possible turning-point of the war, Carency remains only a brilliant local victory. Petain also was responsible for the notable French advance in the Champagne. Again, it is said, reserves he ought to have had failed to appear at the crucial moment. Petain is 59 years old, and is unmarried.

Q.—Is Haig a commander-in-chief?

A.—Sir Douglas Haig (born 1861) is field marshal and commander-in-chief of the British forces in France and Flanders, being promoted when Sir John French was recalled in 1915. He was for many years in the cavalry, becoming major-general in 1904, lieutenant-general in 1910, and general in 1914. He was at Khartum with Kitchener, fought for three years in the South African war, and saw much service in India. He was made field marshal after the Battle of the Somme in 1916.

Q.—Was Hindenburg famous as a general before the war?

A.—He was not famous at all, apparently not even in Germany. He was noted, if at all, only because military circles knew that he had a "fad" for studying the Mazurian Lake region of East Prussia.

When the Russians invaded that province in August, 1914, Hindenburg was suddenly called from retirement, and, by brilliant strategy, destroyed their army at Tannenberg. That victory made him the idol of Germany, and led the Kaiser to create him field marshal. The following summer he drove the Russians out of Poland. After the Battle of the Somme, which reflected little credit on General von Falkenhayn, that general was deposed as chief of the general staff and Hindenburg put in his place (1916). Hindenburg's chief exploit as chief of staff has been the retreat from the Somme in March, 1917, a maneuver which was a very extraordinary masterpiece of strategy, and made an end to the Battle of the Somme and established the famous Hindenburg line. It is often asserted that Hindenburg is not so great a general as his assistant, Ludendorff, the first quartermaster-general. In March, 1918, he began the great German offensive in Picardy and Flanders.

Q.—Was General French a cavalryman?

A.—A very noted one. Field Marshal Sir John French, later Viscount, became celebrated as commander of the cavalry division in the South African war. He commanded with skill the British expeditionary force in Belgium and France from the beginning of the war until he was replaced in 1915 by Sir Douglas Haig. He was chief of the imperial general staff in 1912-14. His title is Viscount French of Ypres, in testimony of his gallant and magnificent services in that battle by which the Germans were frustrated in their design to reach Calais.

Q.—Who was the sternest German commander in Belgium?

A.—Probably that doubtful honor belongs to General Freiherr von Bissing (1844-1917), who was German military governor of Belgium, 1914-1916, and responsible, under the higher German authorities, for the scheme of reprisals and deportations. General von Bissing favored the retention of Belgium by Germany, and sought to disrupt Belgian unity by dividing the Flemings and Walloons into separate administrative districts. He died early in 1917.

Q.—Who commanded the big Russian drive of 1916?

A.—General Alexis Brusilov. He was born in the Caucasus some 60 years ago. After the removal of the Grand Duke Nicholas he took command of the southwestern army, and was in charge of the Russian drive in the summer of 1916, which cost the Austrians 300,000 men. He accepted the revolution of 1917, and was made commander-in-chief of all the Russian armies. He was in charge of the Russian drive of July, 1917, but when the Russian armies broke down under the Austro-German counter drive he resigned.

Q.—Is Cadorna Italian commander-in-chief?

A.—General Luigi, Count Cadorna, was commander-in-chief until the great defeat of the Isonzo in November, 1917, when he was replaced by General Diaz. A native of the extreme northern part of Italy, the borderland of Lake Maggiore, between Lombardy and Piedmont, he is a son of the General Count Cadorna who entered Rome with the Italian troops in 1870 and gave the city as a capital to Victor Emmanuel.

Q.—Did a German manage the Turkish army?

A.—Yes. General Kolmar von der Goltz went to Turkey in 1883 and did much to reorganize the Turkish army. In 1908 he returned to Turkey and spent two years in building up the Turkish army after the Young Turk revolution. When disaster overtook the Turks in the Balkan wars, two years after his departure, von der Goltz received no small blame for the failure of his pupils. This is probably unjust, for the failure seems due to causes over which von der Goltz had no control. He returned to Germany in 1910, became field marshal, and, after the outbreak of war and the invasion of Belgium, military governor of the latter country. After the entry of Turkey into the war, he went to Constantinople to direct the Turkish armies, and died, while at the Turkish front, April 19, 1916.

Q.—Was Boy-Ed a sailor?

A.—Yes. Captain Karl Boy-Ed was in the German Navy and was naval attaché of the German embassy in Washington. He was dismissed by our Government on December 4, 1915, for "improper activity in naval matters."

Q.—Was Kornilov a Cossack?

A.—Yes. General L. G. Kornilov was a Siberian Cossack general, commanding one of the armies in the invasion of Galicia. During the Russian retreat he was captured by the Austrians, but escaped. When the revolution broke out in March, 1917, he was appointed commandant at Petrograd, and later detailed to the southwestern army under Brusilov. He commanded one of the armies in the advance of July, 1917. After Brusilov's resignation he was made commander-in-chief of the Russian army, and inaugurated a series of strong military measures against deserters and slackers.

In September he began a march on Petrograd apparently with the object of changing the personnel of the government. The movement collapsed, and General Kornilov was sentenced to be tried as a rebel.

Q.—Does a woman own the great Krupp works?

A.—Yes. The Krupp works were inherited some years before the war by Bertha, the daughter of Frederick Alfred Krupp, who died in 1902. The founder of the works was Alfred Krupp (1812-1887). These great plants at Essen employ an army of men. In 1902 the various Krupp works employed 43,100 persons, 24,000 being in and around Essen.

Q.—Was Nivelle ever French commander-in-chief?

A.—General Robert Nivelle succeeded Joffre as commander-in-chief in December, 1916, and relinquished the post a few months later to General Petain. He was a colonel of an artillery regiment in the Battle of the Marne at the beginning of the war. By conspicuous gallantry he turned the tide at the Ourcq River and distinguished himself in subsequent engagements. He was called to Verdun in March, 1916, in the midst of the Crown Prince's "drive" on that stronghold. It has been said that he was "the heart and soul" of the French resistance in the months that followed.

Subsequently his armies failed in a great offensive and there has been much political excitement in France about this affair. It was the great offensive on the Aisne front whose culmination came April 16, 1917, with terribly heavy French losses, though signalized by brilliant deeds.

Q.—Why was General Robertson retired?

A.—Ostensibly because he would not agree with the Versailles Conference. General Sir William Robertson has been called "the brains of the British Army." Since 1915 he has been chief of the imperial general staff. He came out of a humble home in Lincolnshire, where he was born in 1860. Entering the service as a trooper, he saw active service in many parts of the British Empire, and was severely wounded in one of his colonial campaigns. Before being called to his high office he commanded the first infantry division in France and was chief

of staff to Field Marshal Sir John French. He was knighted in 1915.

Q.—Who led the British army that captured German West Africa?

A.—General Smuts, a Boer from Cape Colony, and a Boer leader against England in 1903. He succeeded to command of the East African Expedition in March, 1916, and within a year had driven the German forces out and become the conqueror of Germany's colonies in West Africa.

Q.—Is Von Tirpitz a Junker?

A.—No, except in opinion and sympathy. Admiral Alfred von Tirpitz is a fighting man pure and simple, and his political competence never would have made him important. But as an admiral he became a great power.

The present German navy was built under his direction, and he inspired and directed the German Navy League. He continued to hold office while other ministers were dismissed. When he was finally retired as Secretary of the Navy, he became a leader of the Tory Vaterland party, a Pan-German party that demands victory and annexations.

Q.—Which general reduced Maubeuge?

A.—General von Zwehl. According to American correspondents, that fortress fell in the anticipated ten days, and the prisoners numbered 40,000.

Q.—Who is General Baden-Powell?

A.—He is an Englishman, son of the Rev. Prof. Baden-Powell, of Oxford, and of the daughter of Admiral W. H. Smyth. He retired from the army in 1908, and devoted himself to the Boy Scout movement, which he originated. The scouts have done splendid service in England during the war, largely under his direction. His name is pronounced Bayden-Poel.

Q.—What was General Sarrail's command?

A.—He was in charge of the army in the Verdun region, and it was he who reconstructed that famous fortress, for he was quick to learn the lesson of Liege and Namur. Before the European struggle he had seen service in Algeria and Tunis. He is one of the youngest of the older French generals, being only 59. His name became a familiar one to the whole world when he was placed in charge of the allied troops that seized the Greek-Macedonian port of Saloniki and established the allied front across the southern Balkans.

Q.—Who is Enver Pasha?

A.—He is the Minister of War in Turkey. He is described as a man of dictatorial temper, without any of the attributes of a dictator. Yet, he aims to be the dictator of Turkey; he already is dictator of her policy. Of Polish descent, he is Prussian by training and sympathies. He married a daughter of the Sultan.

Q.—Is he a good soldier?

A.—Physically he is dauntless and dashing. He fought well against the Italians in Tripoli, but made a ghastly mess of things when he opposed the Bulgarians. He is apparently a fine fighter but without much talent for scientific strategy. It was he who led the revolution during the Balkan war when Nazim Pasha was assassinated—it is said by Enver himself. He was also prominent in the movement which led to the deposition of Sultan Abdul, in 1909. He has worked in absolute compliance to the wishes and aims of the Germans.

Q.—Who was the von Moltke who was Chief of the German General Staff when the war broke out?

A.—The von Moltke who was Chief-of-Staff in 1914, and who died recently, was a nephew of the great strategist Count Helmuth von Moltke, who defeated Austria in 1867 and France in 1870. This field marshal was born in 1800, and was, therefore, 70 years old when France and Prussia went to war.

Q.—How old are the leading soldiers in this war?

A.—It is a war of young soldiers but of old leaders. When the struggle began Kitchener was 63; French, the greatest cavalry leader in Great Britain, was 61; Lord Fisher was 72; General Joffre was 62; General Pau came out of his retirement at 66, and took the second position in the French Army; General Castelnau, third in command, was about the same age; and General Gallieni, the defender of Paris, was 70. Von der Goltz was 71; von Hindenburg 67, and von Emmich, who took Liége and has since died, was 64. Von Kluck was 67, and von Moltke 66.

The struggle, as it progressed, however, gave younger men a chance. Von Ludendorff, who appears to share supreme command with von Hindenburg in Germany, was only 50, but von Mackensen, the greatest fighting general the enemy have, was nearly 70. Sir Douglas Haig was 54; Sir David Beatty is one of the youngest admirals. He is only 45. Sir W. Robertson, Chief-of-Staff in Great Britain, was 56. On the whole admirals are considerably younger than generals. There is no notable general in the English army as young as Beatty. The former commander-in-chief of the Grand Fleet, Admiral Jellicoe, is 56. Compared with the majority of the leaders in the field to-day, the brilliant soldiers of the Napoleonic era were youths.

Q.—Was Bernhardi a political power in Germany?

A.—No. General Friedrich von Bernhardi (born 1849) was a military writer whose technical knowledge was undoubted. His political importance is due only to his expression of militarist political ideas. He achieved prominence through his volume "Germany and the Next War" (1911). In this he sets forth with frank cynicism the advantages, the necessity, and the inevitability of a war between Germany and England. His argument is: Germany can acquire that "place in the sun" which is her due only by war, because the Triple Entente—Russia, France and England—each and all endowed with vast colonial possessions which they can not adequately use, have been surrounding Germany with a ring of iron. "In one way or another we must square our account with France if we wish for a free hand in our international policy." For Germany the question is, "to be, or not to be." It is either "world power or downfall." While his book was too expensive to be read by common people, it had, nevertheless, gone through eight editions before the war.

Q.—What war experience did General Pershing have?

A.—A great deal, before he went to France. In the year of his graduation from West Point (1886), John Joseph Pershing (born 1860 in Missouri) was sent to New Mexico and Arizona to fight in the Apache campaign. He remained in active Indian service till the Sioux campaign in Dakota (1891) practically ended Indian warfare. In 1898 he commanded the Tenth Cavalry in the fighting around Santiago de Cuba in the Spanish-American War. From 1899 to 1903 he served in the Philippines. He was American military attache in Tokio, 1905-1906, and as such was with Kuroki's army in Manchuria during the Russo-Japanese War. In 1906 he returned to the Philippines and had the very arduous task of governing Mindana and the rebellious Moros. It was a long campaign, partly military and partly diplomatic, and "Jack" Pershing became equally famous in Washington for his talents in both directions. He finally ended Moro opposition by administering a decisive defeat to them in the famous Battle of Bagsag.

In 1915 he commanded the Presidio in California, and there came a tragedy in his life when his wife and three daughters were burned to death there.

In March, 1916, General Pershing became freshly famous when he commanded the celebrated expeditionary force that penetrated into Mexico and ended Villa's power for disorder. In 1917 he became Commander-in-Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces in France.

Q.—When did General Foch first become known?

A.—At the Battle of the Marne, September, 1914, when he led the 7th French Army Corps. He was assigned, under General Joffre's strategy, to oppose the victoriously advancing German line at a point south of Chalons—almost exactly midway between Paris and Verdun. Foch's army represented the French center. The Germans struck at it desperately on September 7 and drove the French south, inflicting heavy losses. Foch rallied his forces and on September 9, by a brilliant piece of strategy, assumed an utterly unexpected offensive himself, and drove his army clear through the German line, routing the famous Prussian Guard. It is held that this battle decided the Battle of the Marne. It forced the swift retirement of the whole German line. Later Foch's troops, with the British, fought the tremendous Battle of Ypres. Foch was 67 years old when, in March, 1918, he was made supreme commander of not only the French, but the British and American forces to oppose the furious thrust of the Germans toward Amiens in the great Battle of Picardy.

WAR'S WHO'S WHO IN CIVILIANS

Q.—Was Asquith in power when war began?

A.—He was Prime Minister, a post he had held since 1908. It carried with it, under English political custom, the leadership of his party.

He had been Home Secretary in Gladstone's last ministry, Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1905, and Prime Minister in 1908. His attitude toward foreign affairs was largely the moderate imperialism of Lord Rosebery. In domestic politics, while opposing the Radicals, he advocated social reform, home rule for Ireland, the democratization of the electoral system, and especially restrictions on the legislative veto of the House of Lords. The Parliament act of 1911, by which the House of Lords lost its power to stop legislation passed by the Commons, was passed when he was Premier. In 1915, to avoid a general election, he established a coalition cabinet. The Dardanelles failure and the Mesopotamian fiasco put his Government on the defensive. The opposition of the Northcliffe newspapers, the unwillingness of Lloyd George to support him, and the widespread feeling that his Government was not sufficiently energetic forced his resignation on December 5, 1916.

Q.—Had Lloyd George not denounced the Boer War bitterly?

A.—So bitterly that he was nearly mobbed more than once. David Lloyd George, a Welshman (born 1863), entered Parliament in 1890. He drew public attention by his vigorous opposition to the Boer War, which he denounced in public meetings at decided personal risk. Nevertheless, he entered the Liberal Cabinet of 1905, and in 1908 became Chancellor of the Exchequer. His first budget proposed a heavy tax on unoccupied land and was forced through the House of Lords only by the threat of the creation of new peers. He then championed the cause of social reforms, being the chief advocate of measures such as workingmen's insurance. In May, 1915, he undertook the difficult task of directing the munitions production, in which labor difficulties had arisen. For this task a new department, the Ministry of Munitions, was created. As Minister of Munitions Lloyd George was a success, and when Asquith resigned in December, 1916, he became Premier.

Q.—Is Balfour a statesman of the democratic type?

A.—Arthur James Balfour (born 1848) is a very distinguished and skilful statesman distinctly of the old-fashioned British type. He entered Parliament in 1874, held several cabinet positions, and became head of the Conservative Party and Premier in July, 1902. He resigned in December, 1905, just before a crushing defeat of his party at the hands of the Liberals in the elections of January, 1906. His leadership of the party in opposition was disliked, and he later resigned this leadership to Bonar Law.

When the coalition cabinet was formed in May, 1915, Mr. Balfour became head of the admiralty, and in December, 1916, relinquished this for the post of Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, succeeding Viscount Grey of Falloden. In this capacity he headed the British mission to the United States in the spring of 1917.

Q.—Who was the "War Chancellor" in Germany?

A.—Dr. Theobald von Bethmann-Hollweg (born 1856). He was the son of a famous Prussian Liberal politician and passed through the grades of the public service to the Ministry of the Interior. In July, 1909, he succeeded Prince Bülow as Imperial Chancellor, and held office eight years. Before the war Bethmann-Hollweg was considered a Liberal. He seems to have desired an *entente* with Great Britain, and had, apparently, achieved it in 1914, when, as he lamented, the war shattered his plans.

In German politics he tried to hold the balance between the Pan-Germans and the Socialists, refusing to commit himself to any definite peace program, but his majority was destroyed in July, 1917, when the Center, or Catholic, party suddenly allied itself with the Socialists in favor of a peace without annexations or indemnities.

Von Bethmann-Hollweg declared in the Reichstag that Belgium had been wronged under the pressure of necessity.

Q.—Who succeeded Von Bethmann-Hollweg as German Chancellor?

A.—(I) Dr. Georg Michaelis (born 1857) succeeded von Bethmann-Hollweg directly (in July, 1917), but lasted only

until November. He failed to develop any policy satisfactory to any party in the Reichstag. He had been Prussian undersecretary of finance and later food controller, in which office he had been notably successful.

(II) Count George V. von Hertling (born 1843) became Chancellor of the German Empire after November 1, 1917, in succession to Michaelis. A fact worth noting is that he is a Bavarian while his predecessors were Prussians. He was for years a professor in Bonn, then a member of the Bavarian Chamber. Since 1912 he had been Prime Minister of Bavaria. In politics he belongs to the conservative wing of the Center or Clerical party. He is said to be more flexible in his views than many German leaders and to be opposed to the annexation program of the Pan-Germans. He has been hailed as recognizing parliamentary rule because he consulted leaders of the Reichstag.

Q.—How many Foreign Ministers has Germany had since war began?

A.—Three, from the beginning of war to the spring of 1918.

Gottlieb von Jagow (born 1863) held the office when war began.

He was succeeded in 1916 by Dr. Alfred Zimmermann (born 1859), who was forced to resign when the United States disclosed his note to the German Minister in Mexico proposing an alliance of Germany, Mexico and Japan against the United States if we should enter the war.

He was succeeded in 1917 by Richard von Kuhlmann (born 1873), who was Councillor of the German Embassy in London when the war began. He then went to Holland and later was ambassador to Turkey, being recalled to become Foreign Minister.

Q.—Is von Bülow playing any part in Europe now?

A.—Von Bülow has been one of the mysteries of the war—mentioned in the news constantly but never with any facts to indicate what he is doing. Since his failure to keep Italy out of the war, when he was there as German ambassador, he has lived in Switzerland. His book "Imperial Germany" (1913) is an excellent presentation of the moderate Prussian point of view.

Prince Bernhard von Bülow (born 1849) belongs to one of the most distinguished families in Europe. He was Chancellor of the Empire from 1900 to 1909.

Q.—Who was Premier of France when war began?

A.—René Viviani was Premier of France at the outbreak of the war, but gave way to M. Briand, in whose cabinet he accepted the post of vice president and Minister of Justice. He was the head of the French mission which visited the United States in May, 1917. M. Viviani is a gifted orator, who aroused his American audiences to enthusiasm.

The second Premier was Aristide Briand (born 1862), who had been Prime Minister several times. He began his career as a Socialist. His most notable achievement was the application of the law separating church and state. In 1909 he suppressed a railway strike by calling the strikers to the colors, despite the fact that he was the leading member of the Socialist-Radical party. Briand was Prime Minister from October 30, 1915, to March 17, 1917.

Q.—Who was France's third war Premier?

A.—Alexandre F. J. Ribot (born 1842) who had been Prime Minister several times, like Briand. He is the man who, between 1890 and 1893, first as Foreign Minister, later as Foreign Minister and Premier, pushed through the Franco-Russian agreement. Between 1895 and 1906 he was less prominent in public life, but when nationalism revived in France after 1906 Ribot again became more of a figure. In October, 1915, he became Finance Minister and in March, 1917, Premier. He advocated a vigorous prosecution of the war but was defeated on a small question in August, 1917. He remained in the Government of his successor, M. Painlevé, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, but soon withdrew.

Q.—Did France have a professor as Premier?

A.—Paul Painlevé (1863) was a scientist and scholar, a mathematician, professor at the Sorbonne, a brilliant chemist, a physicist, an excellent speaker, and leader in political life. In politics he is a Republican-Socialist, i. e., a moderate. At the opening of the war he urged the appointment of a superior commission on inventions to continue the work of the commission on inventions of the War Department, most of whose officials had taken the field. He himself is reported to have invented the gas used against the Germans at Verdun.

He was taken into the cabinet as Min-

ister of Public Instruction, October 31, 1915; was appointed to the new portfolio of Minister of Inventions in January, 1916; Minister of War, 1917, where one of his chief acts was the appointment of Petain to the chief command. On the fall of the Ribot ministry in September, 1917, he was called to constitute a ministry from all parties (except the Unified Socialists) for the sole purpose of prosecuting the war; this lasted, however, only for a few weeks, failing in November, 1917.

Q.—Had Clémenceau been Premier before?

A.—Georges Clémenceau (born 1841) is a former premier of France. For several years he lived in America, but returned to France in 1869. He entered political life after the war of 1870-71. Owing to his great power as a debater, he has always been one of the most influential members of the Chamber of Deputies. He has probably made and unmade more ministries than any other Frenchman of recent history, and is known popularly as "The Tiger." He was prominent in the Panama scandals, and his political career has been a varied one. He is the editor of a newspaper *L'Homme Libre*, which was censored so often during the war that he changed its name to *L'Homme Enchaine*.

Q.—Has the President of France held office throughout the war?

A.—The President of France is elected (by vote of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies) for a period of 7 years. The term of the present President does not expire till 1920. The President of France has not nearly the powers of an American President.

The present President is Raymond Poincaré. He was elected January 17, 1913. Born at Bar-le-Duc, in French Lorraine. Lawyer (advocate at the court of Paris) and writer. Elected to the Chamber of Deputies at the age of 27, in 1893 he became Minister of Public Instruction; 1894, of Finance; 1895, of Public Instruction; 1896, of Finance. He refused four other offers of ministries. He was elected senator, 1903, and was finally appointed Prime Minister and Minister for Foreign Affairs, 1912, which office he held until elected President. He has written many books, among others "How France Is Governed" (1913). He has been opposed by the Socialists.

Q.—Has Serbia still a government?

A.—Yes. It still has its king and cabinet, though, of course, they are not in Serbia. Prominent in this exiled court is Nicholas P. Pasitch, Premier of Serbia, who has held office since September, 1912. He piloted Serbia successfully through the Balkan wars, and during the vicissitudes of the little nation since the Austro-German-Bulgarian conquest (November, 1915) the venerable Premier was a constant inspiration to his people.

Q.—Why did Count Okuma resign as Japanese Prime Minister?

A.—Count Shigenobu Okuma (born 1838), after the fall of Kiachow, presented to China a series of demands which the latter found unacceptable. After considerable negotiation a compromise was reached which gave dissatisfaction in Japan, and in October, 1916, Count Okuma resigned in favor of Count Terauchi. Count Okuma does not belong to one of the great clans. He has always given great attention to the internal development of Japan, and Waseda University is his own creation.

Q.—How long did the Salandra ministry last after Italy declared war on Austria?

A.—One year. Antonio Salandra (born 1853) had become Premier in March, 1914. He had been professor of law at the University of Rome, and minister in several Italian cabinets. At the outbreak of the European war he refused to follow Germany and Austria, claiming that the Triple Alliance treaty had been broken by Austria. From this position he progressed toward hostility to Austria and alliance with the Triple Entente, and, despite the opposition of Giolitti, he carried his policy, and Italy declared war on Austria in May, 1915. He resigned as Premier in June, 1916.

Q.—Who is Vittorio Orlando?

A.—He was made Premier of Italy October 30, 1917. He was born in 1860 at Palermo, became professor of administrative law in the University of Rome, then a deputy, then Minister of Public Instruction in Giolitti's cabinet, and later Minister of the Interior.

Q.—Who signed the Austrian ultimatum to Serbia?

A.—Count Leopold Berchtold (born 1863), Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1912-1915.

Q.—Was Tisza a reactionary?

A.—He was an uncompromising old-time government official. Count Stephen Tisza (born 1861) was a son of a famous statesman and entered politics in 1886, becoming Prime Minister in 1903. He carried through the Diet new and stringent rules of procedure, but had to resign in 1905. He returned to office in 1913. His home policy has been one of inexorable Magyarization. When the new King, Charles IV, came to the throne with ideas of concessions to the non-Magyar races, the continuance of Tisza in power became an impossibility, and he resigned early in 1917.

Q.—Is Count Czernin a German?

A.—No. He comes from Bohemian Czech stock. It was a prominent family and Count V. zu Chudenitz Czernin (born 1857) entered the diplomatic service, and in 1914 was Austrian minister to Roumania. When his attempts to prevent Roumania from entering the war failed, he returned to Austria. In December, 1916, he became Minister of Foreign Affairs and president of the Joint Council of Ministers. His efforts were directed to bringing about a peace based on no annexations and no indemnities, working in alliance with the Center party in Germany and its leader, Mathias Erzberger. He is the advocate of better treatment for the Slavic nationalities within the empire.

Q.—What German politician caused the Reichstag resolution for peace without annexations?

A.—Mathias Erzberger (born 1875), a member of the German Reichstag and leader of the Center party (Catholic party). In July, 1917, after a visit to Switzerland and Austria, where he had interviews with Count Czernin and Prince von Bülow, he made a sensational speech in the Reichstag urging the conclusion of peace on the basis of no annexations and no indemnities. He brought the Center party into opposition to the policies advocated by Chancellor Michaelis, thus bringing into existence an opposition majority in the Reichstag.

Q.—Was Viscount Grey a Conservative?

A.—No. Sir Edward Grey, Viscount of Falloden, and British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs at the outbreak of war, was a Liberal in politics. He entered Parliament in 1885, was undersecretary for Foreign Affairs, 1892-1895, and in 1905 became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs in the Liberal cabinet. When he became director of British foreign policy, England was shifting her policy of isolation with regard to continental affairs to one of participation in them. Grey continued this policy and strengthened the *entente* with France, and negotiated one with Russia. In 1911 he supported France against Germany in Morocco, but in 1914 he negotiated a treaty over the Bagdad railway which Germans regarded as in every way satisfactory. An idealist and an advocate of internationalism in Europe, he strove during the Balkan wars to provide a settlement that should be just and satisfactory. In 1915 he tried, with M. Sazonov, to revive the Balkan League, and after the failure of this project and the collapse of Roumania, he left the cabinet in December, 1916. He was raised to the peerage in 1916.

Q.—Did the British appoint a Governor over Egypt?

A.—No. After they deposed the Khedive, Abbas II, they appointed Hussein Kamil Sultan of Egypt on December 19, 1914. He is the son of the Khedive Ismail (1863-1879).

Q.—Who was the first Russian Premier after the revolution?

A.—Prince George E. Lvov. He held office only from March to June, 1917. He had been prominent in the zemstvos, and had organized a national council of zemstvo representatives which took over much of the work of supplying the Russian armies, and in that capacity achieved a great success and won public confidence. He resigned in July chiefly because he was unwilling to concede the demand for autonomy put forward by the Ukraine, and was succeeded by Kerensky.

Q.—Why did Kerensky fail?

A.—Chiefly, apparently, because he became distrusted through his efforts to continue the war. The Russian people wanted peace and suspected him, apparently, of wishing to continue war for the interest of other nations. His failure to

publish the secret treaties was another factor in his loss of the public confidence. The Bolsheviki published these treaties the moment they gained power.

Alexander F. Kerensky (born 1881) was a lawyer who had done much in defending workmen, political offenders, and Jews. He entered the Duma in 1912 as deputy for Saratov. As leader of the Socialist Labor party he was prominent in the revolution of March, 1917. He gave the signal for the Duma to continue its sitting when the Czar ordered its dissolution. Made Minister of Justice in the Provisional Government, he abolished the death penalty, only to restore it when he also assumed the portfolio of Minister of War. On July 22, 1917, Kerensky became Premier, in succession to Prince Lvov. His power was challenged in September, 1917, by General Kornilov, and in November, 1917, by the Bolsheviki, who sought an immediate peace and the application of the principles of radical socialism to questions of property in land and industry. The movement resulted in the downfall of Kerensky's Government.

Q.—Is "Trotzky" the Russian leader's real name?

A.—No. His real name is understood to be Leber Bronstein. The story of how he came to call himself Trotzky is as unique as the man's whole career. He was imprisoned in Russia for revolutionary propaganda and when he was released he became what the Russian police authorities called an "illegal person," and so found it necessary to hide himself under an assumed name. His jailer had been a man named Trotzky—so he conceived the original idea of naming himself so. This is his own story as he told it while in New York.

Q.—What did Trotzky do in New York?

A.—In New York he lived with his wife and two children in three rooms in a Bronx tenement and earned a very modest living by writing for the *Novy Mir*, the Russian Socialist daily, and speaking at Socialist meetings. He did not get as much weekly income as does the average American unskilled laborer.

Q.—Did anybody in America expect him to become world-famous?

A.—Apparently not even his friends. Those who knew him viewed him merely as one of many clever, fiery, devoted social revolutionaries. That he would engage prominently in the Russian revolution was expected as a matter of course. That he would become a world-figure seems not to have been imagined by his friends; perhaps not by himself.

Q.—Had Trotzky been at all prominent in Russia?

A.—Yes. In the 1905 revolution following the Russo-Japanese war, he was made President of the first Soldiers' and Workingmen's Council in Petrograd as a successor to the original incumbent. He remained president until the defeat of the revolution. Then he was arrested and exiled to Siberia. From there he succeeded in making his escape, and went to Switzerland.

In Switzerland he founded a Socialist paper *Prada* (The Truth), which was printed in Russian and German both.

In about 1910 he went to Germany but soon found it advisable to flee, as arrest had been threatened.

Q.—Where was he when the war began?

A.—He was in Vienna, went to Serbia, returned to Switzerland, and then went to Paris to edit a Russian Socialist paper there. Of his further career he said himself while in New York:

"When a Russian division of troops (in France) mutinied and killed the general, I addressed a severe letter of criticism of the French government to Jules Guesede, a Socialist member of the cabinet, for the savage punishment that was meted out to the Russian troops. This so displeased the French government that I was ordered out of France. I then went back to Switzerland, but Switzerland feared complications with the Czaristic government and would not let me in. I then turned to Spain. Spain would not have me either. I was detained at Barcelona, where I was to be deported to Cuba, where I knew no one, and where I should have found myself completely stranded. Later the Spanish government decided to let me go where I pleased, provided only I left Spain. Every country in Europe practically was now closed to me, and so I turned my gaze across the Atlantic, and arrived at Ellis Island at the end of December, 1916."

Q.—Where was Trotzky born?

A.—He was born in 1878 or 1879 in a little Jewish colony in southern Russia, in the government of Kherson. When

about fourteen years of age he entered the gymnasium of Chernigov, and, like most of the passionate youth of Russia, soon became interested in the revolutionary movements. When he was about 20 years old, the Russian revolutionary movement entered one of its active phases. He says of this period:

"I plunged into propaganda, but continued to study sociology, political economy and history and became a convinced Marxian Socialist. When the Russian Social Democracy split up into two sections on the issue of tactics, I did not identify myself with either the Mensheviki or the Bolsheviki, but continued to work for the general cause of overthrow of Czarism and the cause of Socialism. However, I leaned strongly to the radical side. In other words, I was a Menshevik of the extreme left, or a near-Bolshevik."

Q.—Was Lenine paid by Germany?

A.—The charge has been repeatedly made and as often withdrawn. Nikolai Lenine (born 1870) became the chief leader of the Russian Bolsheviki. His real name is said to be Vladmir Utulyanov. In the early nineties he became a leader of the radical Social Democrats of Russia. Elected to the second Duma after the revolution of 1905, he was exiled. At the beginning of the war he was in Cracow, where he was interned as an enemy alien but released and allowed to join the colony of radical Russians in Switzerland. In April, 1917, he reached Petrograd, where he began to preach immediate peace and general confiscation of land. He was the leader of the first Bolsheviki rising in Petrograd in July, 1917. After that movement was put down he remained in hiding, part of the time probably in Finland, but was in constant correspondence with the Bolsheviki. In November, 1917, he again headed an uprising of the Bolsheviki in Petrograd.

Q.—Was Liebknecht expelled from the German Socialist party?

A.—Yes. He was expelled January 13, 1916. Karl Liebknecht, born 1871, is the son of Wilhelm Liebknecht, one of the founders of modern Socialism. He entered the Reichstag in 1912, and became noted for his opposition to the Government. In August, 1914, he voted in the party caucus against sustaining the Government's demands of war credits, but in the Reichstag he voted with the majority to do so, in accordance with the Socialist theory that party members should vote as a unit. In December, 1914, he openly voted against further military credits, declaring that the war was not one of defense on Germany's part. On January 13, 1916, he was expelled from the Socialist party for refusing to vote with them, and in May, 1916, he was sentenced to four years and one month of prison for a speech delivered May 1, 1916. He served eight months in a fortress in 1907 for high treason in having written a pamphlet about the army.

Q.—Was the founder of Socialism a German?

A.—Yes. The founder of modern socialism was Karl Marx (1818-1883), a German of Jewish ancestry.

Being expelled from Prussia, after living in Paris and Brussels he settled in London, where his home became a center for fellow exiles. His "Communist Manifesto," published a few days before the wave of revolutions which swept over Europe in 1848, made him the head of the International Workingmen's Association. This "International" had an active existence from 1864 to 1870 in uniting the proletariat of Europe against capitalism.

In 1859 Marx published the first volume of his great work, "Capital." It teaches that all history has been a class struggle of patrician against plebs, of noble against serf, of capitalist against workingman. In the class struggle of the future, as the rich grow richer and fewer, and the poor grow poorer, more numerous and more discontented, the poor must surely triumph and seize all instruments of production.

Marx is thus the main inspiration of the Social Democratic party in Germany and of Socialist parties in most other countries. Leading Socialists to-day recognize that some of the Marxian doctrines need revision.

Q.—Who is Cardinal Mercier?

A.—He was president of the great university of Louvain, Archbishop of Malines until he was made a Cardinal in 1907, and is a scholar of high distinction. When Belgium is herself again the memory of her brave Archbishop will stand with that of her heroic king, and that of her stout army, enrolled forever in historic fame.

When the Germans invaded Belgium he drew world notice by his patriotic labors and courage, especially by his pastoral letter of Christmas, 1914. For this he was forbidden by the German authorities

to leave his episcopal residence, an act which drew on Germany the protest of the Pope.

Q.—Was Lord Northcliffe always a journalist?

A.—He began poor with a commonplace little weekly paper that had a big circulation among certain classes in England. He is now the owner of the *Daily Mail*, the great *London Times*, and many other publications. His name is Alfred Harmsworth. He was born in 1865 and was in America as the head of various British war missions.

Q.—Was Nietzsche a leader of popular thought in Germany?

A.—He was a modern philosopher and the large public knew him only by name, if it knew him at all. Friederich Wilhelm Nietzsche dealt in abstract thoughts in which large publics have no interest. Born in 1844, he became professor of classical philology at Basel, 1869. Ill health caused his resignation, 1870. He was comparatively well until 1888, but his vigorous mind broke down and he became hopelessly insane in 1889.

Nietzsche insists that individuals of higher culture must assert themselves for the sake of civilization. They must oppose conventional ideas and customs.

It is very difficult for students of Nietzsche to understand how his ideas can be held as supporting the theory of State Power and national aggrandizement. He was a mystic thinker, not a political writer.

Q.—Has a Pope died since the war began?

A.—Yes. Pope Pius X (born 1835) died on August 20, 1914. His death is said to have been hastened by the outbreak of the war. On August 19, the day before his death, he issued an appeal for peace.

Q.—Is the present Pope an Italian?

A.—Yes. Benedict XV Giacomo della Chiesa (born 1854) and pope since the death of Pius X in 1914, was formerly cardinal archbishop of Bologna.

Q.—Is Count Reventlow a German official?

A.—No. Count Ernst zu Reventlow is a furiously Pan-German extremist journalist (born 1871), whose writings in the *Deutsche Tages-Zeitung* have been distinguished for their bitter and uncompromising hatred of the United States. He has written a book on German foreign policy, *"Deutschlands Auswärtige Politik*, 1888-1914."

Q.—Is Thomas, the French politician, a Socialist?

A.—He is one of the leading Socialists of Europe. He is the son of a baker and became a Socialist, joining the extreme party, the Unified Socialists. Successively he was elected a municipal councillor, mayor, deputy to the French Chamber. At the outbreak of the war he started as sergeant, then became a lieutenant. Consulted continually by Millerand, Minister of War, on the subject of munitions, he was made undersecretary for munitions. In the reorganized cabinet of December, 1916, with only five members in the war council, he was made Minister of Munitions. He stood strongly against allowing French Socialist delegates to go to the Stockholm Conference in 1917. He resigned in September, 1917, because Premier Ribot could not give a definition of the war aims of France satisfactory to the Unified Socialists. As the latter party would enter no ministry with Ribot, Thomas was not included in the Painlevé ministry of September, 1917.

Q.—What has made Treitschke famous?

A.—Germany's opponents found abundant material in his writings to prove German lust for conquest. He was a historian, and though born a Saxon, he believed in Prussia as the State which could best unite Germany. He became professor of history in the University of Berlin. His lectures were crowded with students. His pronouncements on German policy in the *Preussiche Jahrbücher* determined opinion. He wrote history that glorifies the rise of Prussia; he acclaimed the union of Germany and the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine as he saw it realized through the Franco-Prussian war; he insisted upon the concentration of power in the German State and on the dominant position of that State in Europe. He was also a bitter opponent of England.

Q.—Is Venizelos a Greek?

A.—He was born in the island of Crete in 1864. He first entered Greek politics in 1909, when he was summoned by the king and helped to pilot the country through the Balkan wars. From the beginning of the European conflict he fa-

vored the cause of the Allies, and urged King Constantine to join them. But the king twice dismissed his masterful Premier, who at last set up a Provisional Government at Saloniki for the defense of Greece. After the abdication of Constantine on June 11, 1917, Venizelos again became Premier with the power of the Allies behind him.

Q.—Was von Bernstorff in America long before the war?

A.—Count J. H. von Bernstorff (born 1862) was in this country for six years before the war, having been appointed German ambassador to the United States in 1908. He was absent from his post at the outbreak of the war, but returned at once. He was handed his passports on February 3, 1917, immediately after Germany's announcement of unrestricted warfare. Since his return to Germany he has been appointed ambassador to Turkey in succession to Dr. von Kuhlmann, who became Foreign Minister.

Q.—What ambassadors and ministers were in Washington when we declared war on Germany?

A.—Belgium, M. E. de Cartier de Marchienne; Brazil, Senhor Domicio da Gama; China, Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo; Cuba, Dr. Carlos de Cespedes; France, M. Jules Jusserand; Great Britain, Sir Cecil Spring-Rice; Greece, M. A. Vouros (chargé); Guatemala, Señor Don Joaquin Mendez; Italy, Count Macchi di Cellere; Japan, Mr. Aimaro Sato; Panama, Señor Don Belisario Porras; Portugal, Viscount d'Alte; Russia, Prof. Boris Bakhmeteff; Serbia, Mr. Lioubomir Michailovitch; Siam, Phya Prabha Karavongse.

Q.—Who were our Ambassadors when we declared war on Germany?

A.—Belgium, Brand Whitlock; Brazil, Edwin V. Morgan; China, Paul S. Reinsch; Cuba, William E. Gonzales; France, William G. Sharp; Great Britain, Walter H. Page; Greece, Garrett Droppers; Guatemala, William H. Leavell; Italy, Thomas Nelson Page; Japan, Roland S. Morris; Panama, William J. Price; Portugal, Thomas H. Birch; Roumania, Charles J. Vopicka; Russia, David R. Francis; Serbia, H. Percival Dodge (special agent); Siam, George P. Ingersoll.

Q.—What charges were made against Bolo Pasha?

A.—Paul Bolo, better known as Bolo Pasha, was formally charged with having maintained communication with the enemy in Switzerland in 1915 and in Paris the same year, when he received German money from Cavallini to further the pacifist movement; in the United States in 1916, for having received through Pavenstedt and the Deutsche Bank German money to influence the French newspapers, and for advancing money to the director of the *Paris Journal*.

He was sentenced to death in February, 1918.

Q.—How old are the English leaders?

A.—Lloyd George is one of the young men of the cabinet, being only 53 when he became Prime Minister. He was a year younger than W. M. Hughes, ex-premier of Australia, who was 54. Asquith was 64, Balfour was 68, Bonar Law 58, Chamberlain 53, McKenna 53, Harcourt 54, Birrell 67, Curzon 58 in 1916. Herbert Samuel was the youngest Minister in the Asquith Cabinet, being only 46.

Q.—Who was Jean de Bloch?

A.—The author of a famous and monumental work on war. It was published sixteen years ago, and showed that modern war must become trench fighting, and that entire nations must inevitably become engaged. His forecasts were wonderfully accurate. H. G. Wells says that he was much studied in Germany and his lessons were taken to heart, but in England few knew about him. He was a banker of Warsaw, a Russian Jew. He made the study of war his hobby, and labored hard to promote the cause of international arbitration, holding that war entailed such ghastly suffering that everyone who could do so should work to make its outbreak impossible. He spent a large fortune to this end. He died a few years ago. He was utterly wrong, however, in a chief part of his prophecy —that the monstrous cost of modern war would make a long war impossible.

Q.—Is it a fact that Lord Chelmsford's family name is Thesiger?

A.—The present Lord Chelmsford is the third baron. His grandfather was Frederic Thesiger, twice Lord Chancellor of England, whose brother, Sir Frederic Thesiger, was Naval A. D. C. to Nelson at Copenhagen. The first baron's father

was a Saxon who had migrated to England, where he became secretary to Lord Rockingham. The German strain in the present Viceroy of India is, therefore, very slight.

Q.—Who is Henri Bourassa?

A.—He is a French-Canadian, and one of the most picturesque figures in public life in the Dominion. He is an anti-Imperial Socialist, editor of the paper *L Devoir*, published in Montreal. He is a member of Parliament, and has a very strong and devoted following of French-Canadians. He strongly opposed the raising of troops in Canada during the Boer war, and campaigned against Canadian participation in the present struggle.

Q.—Who is Maximilian Harden?

A.—One of the very important journalists and publicists of Europe. In his youth he was a friend and to some extent a confidant of Bismarck. During the past decade he has published a paper *Die Zukunft* ("The Future"), which has voiced the most liberal opinion in Germany. Some years ago *Die Zukunft* became familiar to the whole world through Harden's bold attack on certain highly placed men who were close to the Kaiser. Harden triumphed, despite suits for libel that were brought by the assailed men. The Kaiser dismissed them, and there was a great political clearance.

Since the war began he has been one of the few writers who measurably kept their heads. Almost consistently he has warned his own people that they must not think all the wrong-doing is on the side of their enemies.

Q.—Is Lord Milner a German?

A.—According to the British law, that is to say, *jus soli*, he would be so regarded as he was born in Bonn in Germany. According to German or French law, that is to say, *jus sanguinis*, he would be regarded as an Englishman, for his father was British in the eyes of that law, although, according to English law, he, too, was a German. Lord Milner's grandfather was an Englishman but he married in Germany and Lord Milner's father was born at Bonn on the Rhine. His mother was English.

He went to Africa as High Commissioner and Governor of Cape Colony in 1897, and remained there as High Commissioner and Administrator of the conquered Transvaal and Orange Free State until he retired in 1905.

THE WORKERS

Q.—What is the biggest American labor organization?

A.—The American Federation of Labor, formed in 1881. It is a federation, or union, of 109 national and international unions, each of which maintains its own individual existence, while giving up certain powers to the common head.

The Knights of Labor, who had sought to merge all the separate unions into one national organization, gave way before the federation movement in the years 1885-1890. A few important national unions, such as the four railroad brotherhoods, and the national window-glass workers, are not affiliated with the federation. The paid-up membership of the federation is now approximately 2,070,000. Its headquarters are in Washington, D. C., its president is Samuel Gompers, its secretary Frank Morrison, and its official organ the *American Federationist*.

Q.—Do most American workingmen belong to labor unions?

A.—No. There are about 30,000,000 men in the United States who earn their living with their hands. Less than 3,000,000 are affiliated with labor unions.

Q.—Has American labor been conscripted?

A.—No. There has been talk of it, not officially, but among some factions representing various opinions, about the best way to conduct war. The workingmen have answered the suggestion with the general reply that if labor is conscripted, capital also must be conscripted.

Q.—Has any state passed a compulsory labor law?

A.—Yes. Maryland and West Virginia recently passed laws providing that every man must work at least thirty-six hours a week, and New York and New Jersey have enacted that idlers, rich or poor, shall be fined and jailed. This, it must be noted, is not "conscription of labor." It is conscription of idle persons, in so far as it can be called "conscription" at all.

Q.—What is sabotage?

A.—The organized hampering of production by slack work, the skillful disabling of machinery, or the publication of trade secrets as a part of the "class struggle" between employing classes and labor. The practice first came into prominence in France in 1895, and it was formally approved at the Congress of the French General Confederation of Labor in 1897, and the approval was reaffirmed at the Congress of 1900.

Q.—What was the origin of the word boycott?

A.—Ireland gave it to us, as she has given so many expressive words. Parnell in 1880 advised the people to punish a man for taking a farm from which another had been evicted "by isolating him from his kind as if he were a leper of old." The first victim of the new system was the agent of Lord Erne, an absentee landlord, who had estates in Mayo. This agent refused to accept rents at figures fixed by the tenants, and was treated according to Parnell's advice. His servants were forced to leave him, his crops were left to rot in the fields, even the post and telegraph were interfered with. The agent's name was Captain Boycott, and the name of the first victim was given to the system.

Q.—How many motor cars were produced in the United States in 1916?

A.—Motor vehicles produced: 1916, 1,617,708; 1915, 892,618. Passenger cars sold: 1916, 1,525,578; 1915, 842,229. Motor trucks sold: 1916, 92,130; 1915, 50,369. Retail value of motor vehicles sold: 1916, $1,088,028,273; 1915, $691,778,950. Average price of passenger cars: 1916, $605; 1915, $672. Number of cars and trucks exported first ten months: 1916, 67,616; 1915, 53,380. Value of cars and trucks exported first ten months: 1916, $100,147,636; 1915, $94,434,432. It is estimated that in California there is one motor car to eleven of the population.

Q.—Are women doing men's work in all belligerent countries?

A.—In England, France, Germany and Austria, women have largely replaced men in many industries. In Russia and Italy women always have been accustomed to working in the fields and in certain other manual occupations, and,

since the war, they have been more than ever responsible for the sowing and gathering in of the crops.

Q.—What work do the women do?

A.—In England half a million, at least, are working in munition factories. They act in the entire country as tram and bus conductors, taxi drivers, chauffeurs and elevator operators. In addition they do heavier work, cart and deliver coal, act as laborers in many districts, and, in Birmingham, for instance, have replaced men as road-workers. They were urged to work in the fields, but the response was not as great as was hoped. In France and Germany women work in the munition factories, and, in fact, in all manner of occupations usually reserved exclusively for men.

Q.—Do English women munition workers get men's wages?

A.—"Equal pay, equal work," has been the formula adopted ever since the Minister of Munitions took over the factories. Women were all paid at the same piece rates as men, and a time rate was fixed at £1 ($4.87) a week. The original arrangement has been slightly amended since, and provides for the payment of £1 for a 48-hour week to women of eighteen years and over, and an extra 6-pence (about 12 cents) an hour for all additional work.

This rate, however, applies only to the national factories, and has not been extended to the private establishments, where, apparently, women have been working on munitions of war for 5 and 6 cents an hour. In the national factories the rate is 8 and 9 cents. It is pointed out, however, by the National Federation of Women Workers that a pound a week is, according to pre-war standards, worth now only $3.25 a week, and it is being paid for work formerly done by men, and admittedly of vital importance to the nation. In a recent inquiry it came out that in many branches of munition making not under direct Government control women were only getting $3.37 a week.

Q.—How many German women are in industries?

A.—Helferich, German Minister for Internal Affairs, gave figures in the Reichstag concerning the employment of women in Germany. He did not mention the actual numbers, merely giving percentages. On July 1, 1914, the proportion of women employed in the electrical industries was 24 per cent; on July 1, 1915, it was 55 per cent. In other industries the respective figures were:—Chemicals, 7 per cent to 23 per cent; metallurgy and engineering, 7 per cent to 19 per cent; textures, 54 per cent to 64 per cent; wood-working, 15 per cent to 26 per cent; clothing, 53 per cent to 64 per cent; agriculture, 32 per cent to 45 per cent; building, 3 per cent to 9 per cent. There are probably far more women now employed, as a general mobilization of the German population occurred in 1916.

Q.—Have Chinese workmen been sent to France?

A.—They have been there some time, and, according to neutral papers, have given great satisfaction. One hundred thousand were originally contracted for, the arrangement having been made through the Chinese banks at a fixed rate per head.

Q.—How many countries have adopted daylight saving?

A.—Great Britain was the first to propose the scheme. William Willet, a London builder, advocated it for years, but Parliament always blocked the bill. Germany adopted the principle on May 1, 1916. Great Britain followed suit on May 21, and most European countries then put the clock forward an hour. Holland, having such close trade relations with Germany, quickly copied her, and Austria-Hungary did the same. Italy came into line on June 3. The Danes were, however, the first to follow Germany, putting the clock forward on May 15.

Q.—When did America adopt it?

A.—The bill to save daylight was passed by Congress on March 15, 1918. It provided that at 2 A. M. of the last Sunday of March in each year the clocks should be advanced one hour and at 2 A. M. of the last Sunday in October they were to be set back again one hour, and thus returned to the old time for the months of short days. Five time-zones were established to conform with the zones for standard time that had always existed.

Q.—Are the Germans working the Belgian and French mines?

A.—Dr. Dillon says they are, and that no fewer than 40,000 Belgian and French miners are doing the work. Dutch reports confirm this, and state that all the

coal is sent to Germany. Timber is also being cut from the Belgian forests. The figures as to the Belgian labor employed have been exceedingly conflicting. Before the war about 200,000 work people had been regularly engaged in coal and iron mining and quarrying.

Q.—What wages are paid in China?

A.—J. P. Donovan, in *The Empire Review*, says: "Although the cost of labor has risen in China, as in other countries, during the past twenty years, it is still low when compared with what is paid for the same kind in either Europe or America. Ordinary laborers receive from 12s. to 18s., a month ($3 to $4.50), while the wages of skilled laborers and mechanics rarely exceed from £2 to £3 ($10 to $15) a month. In the Hanyang steel works, which was started by the Viceroy Chang-Chih-tung and where some 5,000 men are employed, ordinary laborers receive about $3 a month. Women reelers in the silk factories in Shanghai earn less than 25 cents a day for eleven hours' work. Generally speaking, laborers in the interior are paid 6d. to 9d. (12 to 18 cents) a day, for which they work from ten to twelve hours."

Q.—Is there shortage of British miners?

A.—The number of persons employed in the mines in May, 1915, was 953,642, a decrease of 180,104 from the number employed during the period January-July, 1914. The output of coal for the year 1913 was 287,411,869 tons; in 1914, 265,643,030 tons; in 1915, there was a further decline, the production being 253,179,446 tons, which made 34,232,423 tons less in 1915 than in 1913. In 1913, 73,400,118 tons were exported; in 1914, 70,561,402 tons; in 1915, 50,576,078 tons; and in 1916, 46,112,155 tons. These totals include the coal taken on steamers for their own use. Since Italy, Spain, Greece and Norway rely almost entirely upon coal from overseas, it is evident that nothing like the requirements of these countries have been met since the war began. Germany used to send coal to some of these places, and France used to produce what she wanted. All must now look to England or to America, and the above figures show that Great Britain exported 27,000,000 tons less in 1916 than in 1913, so they must have gone very short.

Q.—How did England settle the big 1916 railway dispute?

A.—The men asked for an increase of 10 shillings a week on all wages, basing their demand on the rise in the cost of living. They obtained exactly half what they asked for, but in the form of a war bonus, not as increase of wages. In October, 1915, a war bonus of 5 shillings was paid by the railway companies. Since then it has been increased to 10 shillings. The increase means that the men are now getting on the average a third more in wages than they did before the war started; but as the cost of food has increased more than 100 per cent, and the general cost of living has gone up nearly 75 per cent, the men declare that they actually are worse off now than when the war began. The Government, by the way, has to pay the bonus of 10 shillings a week. The companies do not, although they made the arrangement with the men.

Q.—On what terms did the English Government take over the railways?

A.—The agreement made by the Board of Trade was that the Government leased the railways from the twenty-nine companies concerned for the period of the war on the basis of their net earnings in 1913, less 12½ per cent of the war bonus granted to the men, and that out of this rental the companies had to meet any addition to their interest charges.

Q.—How many women are employed in British industries?

A.—Omitting domestic servants and women at work in military, naval and Red Cross hospitals, it is estimated that nearly 5,000,000 women are directly employed in various occupations in Great Britain.

Q.—How many were employed before the war?

A.—About 3,750,000. Since the war 1,250,000 men have been directly replaced by women.

Q.—How many war factories are there in Great Britain?

A.—In December, 1916, the Minister of Munitions announced that the total number of controlled establishments in the United Kingdom was 4,585.

SPIES, TRAITORS AND ALIEN ENEMIES

Q.—What is a spy?

A.—Article 82 of the United States Articles of War says: "Any person who in time of war shall be found lurking or acting as a spy in or about any of the fortifications, posts, quarters or encampments of any of the armies of the United States, or elsewhere, shall be tried by a court-martial or by a military commission and shall, on conviction thereof, suffer death."

Hague Rule XXIX, and the "Rules of Land Warfare" (General Staff, U. S. A., 1914) define a spy as a person who clandestinely or on false pretences endeavors to obtain information with the intention of communicating it to the hostile party.

Soldiers in their own uniform who penetrate hostile lines for information are not considered spies. They are spies if they wear false uniform or any disguise.

Q.—Is an enemy alien that gives information a spy?

A.—Yes. Any person, no matter what the nationality may be, is guilty of spying if he tries to send information out of the country, directly or indirectly, with intent of aiding the enemy.

Technically, it might be held that the information must be of military nature; but in this war there has come such an intimate and intricate inter-relation of military, industrial and political matters, that the tendency would be to charge that even political information was so designed to give "aid and comfort to the enemy" that it comes under either espionage or treason,

Q.—Is a man who is confessedly a German officer a spy?

A.—Not if he has informed the government promptly and voluntarily of his presence and rank. If he conceals the fact, and is arrested subsequently and charged with being a spy, it still would be necessary to prove that he collected information with intent to send it to his army. But the concealment would make a grave count to begin with, and would, no doubt, be held as presumption in itself that he was a spy, because one of the "acid tests" of a spy is his clandestine character.

Q.—Is a woman of German birth who accidentally learns something of importance and tells it, a spy?

A.—It depends on the person to whom she tells it, and her intent in telling it, and, of course, the nature of the information. If her intention in telling it is to convey information of value to the enemy, she is guilty of a crime that is grave in war, whether it be committed by an alien or a native.

The fact that she obtained the information accidentally would not in itself necessarily clear her from the charge of being a spy,though it might be accepted as presumptive evidence in her favor.

If she obtained the information accidentally and simply repeated it through the habit of gossip, she would be in the same category as any American-born woman guilty of the same thing, but she would have a more difficult task to clear herself of suspicion.

Q.—What actions lay a person open to being shot as a spy?

A.—Any activity that would tend to gather information valuable to an enemy will subject a person in time of war to the charge of being a spy. Within a military zone actions that might be quite innocent elsewhere often are highly suspicious, and the apprehended person will have a much harder time explaining these actions than he would have outside of such military zones. This is not an unfair rule in itself, for civilians and even soldiers, who are not called by actual business into such a zone, have no business there.

The almost universal military punishment for spying is death; and the death sentence may be inflicted even if a spy has not succeeded in getting any information or in transmitting it to the enemy.

Q.—Are spies shot without trial?

A.—The Hague Conventions provide that a spy, even when taken in the act, "should not be punished" without previous trial. If a spy happens to be caught by soldiers engaged at the moment in fighting for their lives, his chances probably are not particularly good. If, however, a spy is brought before officers, he should, and as a rule does, get a

trial. Among troops engaged in active operations, however, the method of trial is pretty swift and not very lenient.

Q.—What is a court-martial?

A.—It is a military court, composed wholly of soldiers—army officers in army matters and navy officers in naval matters. In peace-times a court-martial usually is assembled with much care and full time is given to the case. In war, courts-martial are assembled quickly, and the manner of trial generally depends on the conditions at the given moment, the amount of time at the disposal of the court, the attitude of the members, etc. The accused may have military counsel assigned to him by the court, but he has not the right to demand counsel of his own selection. A summary court-martial may last only a few minutes.

A fundamental difference in principle between courts-martial and civil courts is this: a civil court is supposed in law to look after the interest of the defendant very carefully. He is presumed to be innocent until convicted. A court-martial, while it is expected to be just, looks after the interests of its own army first, second and all the time.

Q.—Can a person giving information to his own government be shot as a spy?

A.—Yes. He may be punished either as a spy or as a "war traitor," according to the nature of the case. Paragraph 204 of the U. S. A. "Rules of Land Warfare" says: "If the citizen or subject of a country or place invaded or conquered, gives information to his own government, from which he is separated by the hostile army, or if he gives information to the army of his government, he is a war traitor."

Q.—What is the difference between a spy and a "war traitor"?

A.—The term was devised by soldiers to fit the case of the inhabitants of an invaded district who try to give news to their own army or government. These people obviously lack the "clandestine" character of spies, since they have not entered the invading lines purposely, but are caught within them against their will.

To meet this case, the world's legal military minds have devised the crime of "war treason." Any information, aid or comfort that the inhabitants of invaded districts give to their own side, and anything they may do to hamper or injure the invaders is "war treason." They may not even offer voluntarily to serve as guides to their own government's army.

The punishments for "war treason" are the same as for spying. A "war traitor" usually is shot pretty summarily.

Q.—Is spying a crime in peace-times?

A.—It is, but it is usually limited wholly to such spying as actually deals with military secrets. Foreign officers and soldiers, for instance, may move freely in another country, during peace-time, without wearing uniforms or otherwise declaring themselves, and they will not be considered spies unless they actually try to get military secrets either by subterfuge or by corrupting somebody.

In time of war, on the contrary, any officer or soldier of a belligerent power caught in the territory of another belligerent, in civilian clothes, would be considered as being in disguise; and being in disguise is one of the important counts in declaring men guilty of being spies.

Q.—Is spying in peace-times punished by death?

A.—It may be, but it very rarely is. All the European governments have more or less elaborate "secret service" organizations for getting military secrets, and for that reason spy-trials are handled rather delicately in times of peace, and the most usual punishment is a term in prison.

Some time before the big war, Great Britain caught some German army officers and Germany caught some British army officers in the act of gathering military information. Both parties were in civilian garb, and each government tried its captives with astonishing politeness and caution. The men were sentenced in each case to fairly long prison terms, but it was generally understood by both nations that the sentences were to be carried out without subjecting the prisoners to the onus of felons, and there were guarded suggestions that they might, in fact, be released as soon as possible.

Q.—Is a person who tries to get commercial and other non-military secrets in peace-times a spy?

A.—No. The laws of all nations against espionage cover only espionage for military purposes. A man trying to get commercial secrets may render him-

self liable to punishment if he corrupts government officials, or private employees, or otherwise tries wrongfully to get information, but that is a matter of common law that has nothing to do with espionage.

As a matter of fact, all governments keep commercial and consular agents in the territory of other nations to gather commercial and industrial information, and this is done not only openly but by mutual consent.

RECORD OF EVENTS IN THE GREAT WAR

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1914

June 28.—The Austrian Archduke, Francis Ferdinand, is murdered at Serajevo, Bosnia, by a Serbian.

July 23.—Austria-Hungary sends an ultimatum to Serbia.

July 25.—Serbia agrees to most of the demands of Austria-Hungary, and asks arbitration of the rest.

July 28.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Serbia.

July 31.—Germany demands that Russia cease its mobilization.

August 1.—Germany declares war on Russia.

August 2.—German troops enter the neutral Duchy of Luxemburg.

Belgium refuses free passage of German troops.

August 3.—Germany declares war on France.

German troops enter Belgium, meeting with stubborn resistance.

August 4.—Great Britain declares war on Germany.

August 6.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia.

August 8.—The first British troops are landed in France; French troops cross the German frontier into Alsace-Lorraine.

August 15-23.—French armies are forced to retire after engagements at Morhange (Alsace-Lorraine) and at Neufchateau and Charleroi (Belgium).

August 16.—Japan demands the German possessions at Kiau-chau, China.

August 19.—The German Army occupies Liége, having been delayed two weeks by Belgian resistance.

August 20.—Germans occupy Brussels.

August 23.—The British at Mons (Belgium), holding left wing, are attacked by a superior force and compelled to join in retreat of whole Allied line.

Japan declares war on Germany.

August 26—Louvain is destroyed as punishment for an alleged attack by Belgian citizens on German troops.

August 28.—British and German warships meet in the first naval engagement in Heligoland Bight; five small German vessels are destroyed.

A **Russian army** invading East Prussia is disastrously defeated at Tannenberg.

September 2.—A Russian army invading the Austrian province of Galicia occupies Lemberg after decisively defeating the Austrians.

September 3.—The seat of the French Government is transferred to Bordeaux.

September 5.—Great Britain, France, and Russia agree not to conclude separate peace.

September 6-10.—In the **Battle of the Marne**, the French defeat the Germans, stop the march toward Paris and force a hasty retreat.

September 12.—The German retreat is halted at River Aisne, from Soissons to Argonne forest; trench warfare begins.

September 20.—The "race to the sea" is begun—the rival armies in France endeavoring to turn each other's western flank, and the intrenched line mounts northward from the Oise to the North Sea.

The famous Cathedral at Rheims, France, is wrecked by German guns.

September 22.—Three British cruisers are sunk in the North Sea by a German submarine.

October 9.—Antwerp is occupied by Germans after ten days' bombardment; the Belgian army escapes.

October 16-28.—In the **Battle of the Yser**, German attempt to sweep down Belgian coast is blocked chiefly by flooding of rivers and canals.

October 20-November 11.—The **first Battle of Ypres** results in loss of territory by British and French, but in failure of Germany's attempt to reach Channel ports.

October 29.—Turkey enters the war as an ally of Germany and Austria-Hungary, bombarding Russian ports on Black Sea.

November 1.—A **naval engagement** is fought **off coast of Chile**; two British cruisers are sunk by the German fleet.

November 7.—The Japanese capture Tsing-tau, the fortified portion of German possessions at Kiau-chau.

November 9.—The British War Secretary announces that 1,250,000 men are in training in England.

November 15.—The deadlock on the western front begins, destined to last, with little change, for years.

December 6.—The Germans occupy Lodz, Poland, after six weeks of sanguinary fighting during which both German and Russian armies in turn faced disaster.

December 8.—The **German Pacific fleet is destroyed** by a British squadron near the Falkland Islands; four German warships are sunk and one escapes.

December 14.—Austrians evacuate Belgrade and all Serbia, after a severe defeat.

December 16.—German cruisers bombard cities on east coast of England.

December 17.—Great Britain declares Egypt to be a British protectorate, terminating suzerainty of Turkey.

December 26—The United States protests to Great Britain against seizure and detention of cargoes for neutral ports.

1915

January 3-4.—Russian armies defeat Turkish forces in the Caucasus.

January 16.—Russian armies begin to pass over Carpathians from Galicia into plains of Hungary.

January 24.—A naval engagement is fought in the North Sea off Dogger Bank, between powerful British and German fleets, ending in a British victory.

January 26.—The German Government seizes all corn, wheat, and flour—the beginning of a rationing system.

January 30.—German submarines sink several British merchant ships.

February 2.—Great Britain decides to seize grain and flour shipments to Germany.

February 4.—Germany declares a submarine war zone around the British Isles, after February 18, and announces that enemy merchant ships will be destroyed; neutral vessels are warned of danger.

February 10.—The United States protests to Germany against risks created by German war zone decree—the "strict accountability" note.

The United States protests to Great Britain against use of American flags on British vessels.

February 12.—A second Russian invasion of East Prussia comes to an end, after a disastrous defeat in the Masurian Lake region.

February 16.—Germany offers to withdraw war-zone decree if Great Britain permits movement of foodstuffs to civil population of Germany.

February 18.—The German war zone decree becomes effective; Germany disclaims responsibility for accidents to neutral vessels.

February 19-20.—British and French warships bombard Turkish forts at entrance to Dardanelles.

February 20.—The United States sends an identic note to Great Britain and Germany, suggesting agreement on (1) Britain's interference with food for German civilians and (2) German submarine methods.

February 20-23—Two American steamships are sunk by mines in North Sea.

March 1.—Premier Asquith announces Great Britain's intention to prevent commodities of any kind from reaching or leaving Germany.

March 10.—The British employ for first time massed artillery fire preliminary to an infantry advance; they occupy Neuve Chapelle, but fail to win road to Lille.

The German converted cruiser "Prinz Eitel Friedrich" enters Hampton Roads, after a seven months' commerce-destroying voyage from China.

March 14.—The German cruiser "Dresden" (which escaped from Falklands battle) is sunk by British warships off Chile.

March 19.—One French and two British battleships are sunk by floating mines while bombarding forts in the Dardanelles, ending the attempt to force a passage without support from land.

March 21.—A third Russian invasion of East Prussia is brought to an end, by a defeat at Memel.

March 22.—The Austrian fortress of Przemysl is surrendered to the Russians, after a long siege, with 130,00 prisoners.

April 5.—Russia announces capture of Carpathian positions on a 75-mile front.

April 11.—The German converted cruiser "Kronprinz Wilhelm" enters Hampton Roads, having remained at sea eight months.

April 21.—Britain's army in active service is officially said to be 750,000.

April 22-May 8.—In the Second Battle of Ypres the Germans gain ground north of that gained in the first battle, but again fail to break through the British line; they employ asphyxiating gas for the first time.

April 25.—Anglo-French troops are landed on both sides of the Dardanelles, after suffering heavy casualties.

May 1.—A Russian army is destroyed in the Battle of the Dunajec (east of Cracow), and other Russian armies in the Carpathians are forced to retreat hastily.

May 7.—The "Lusitania" is sunk by a German submarine without warning; 1,154 persons lose their lives, including 114 Americans.

May 12.—A British commission investigating charges of German cruelty in Belgium reports deeds unparalleled in three centuries of civilized warfare.

May 13.—The United States protests to Germany against its submarine policy culminating in sinking of "Lusitania," and declares that it will not omit any word or act necessary to maintain the rights of its citizens.

May 23.—Italy enters the war, against Austria-Hungary only.

May 25-27.—Two British battleships are sunk by a German submarine in the Dardanelles.

June 3.—Russian forces evacuate Przemysl and continue the retreat in Galicia.

June 8.—The American Secretary of State, William J. Bryan, resigns.

June 9.—The United States sends a second note to Germany relating to the "Lusitania."

June 11.—Italian forces occupy Gradisca, in an advance toward Trieste.

June 29.—Austria-Hungary protests to United States against supplying war materials to Allies.

July 5.—The Austro-German movement against Russians ends—having blocked the threatened invasion of Hungary and practically cleared Austria of Russians.

July 8.—Germany offers safety to United States vessels in submarine zone under specified conditions.

July 9.—German Southwest Africa is surrendered to union of South Africa troops under General Botha.

July 15.—Germany admits that American steamer "Nebraskan" was damaged by torpedo from a German submarine.

July 21.—The United States declares Germany's submarine proposal to be "very unsatisfactory," and states that further incidents will be regarded as "deliberately unfriendly."

July 25.—The American steamer "Leelanaw," carrying contraband, is sunk by a German submarine, warning being given.

August 4.—German troops occupy Warsaw, capital of Russian Poland, after a swift encircling advance over vast territory, from north, west and south.

August 7.—Additional British troops are landed on Gallipoli Peninsula, at Suvla Bay, in an unsuccessful attempt to flank the Turks.

August 15.—The British Government registers all persons in the United Kingdom between ages of 15 and 65.

August 16-20.—The Germans fail in attempt to enter the Gulf of Riga, losing several small vessels.

August 17-September 20.—The Germans capture Kovno, Brest-Litovsk, Grodno, Vilna, and other fortresses on Russia's second line of defense.

August 19.—The "Arabic" is sunk by a German submarine on way to New York; twenty passengers (including several Americans) being drowned.

August 21.—Italy declares war on Turkey.

The British Government declares cotton absolute contraband.

September 1.—The German Ambassador at Washington declares that hereafter liners will not be sunk by German submarines without warning.

September 7.—The Russian Grand Duke Nicholas is displaced from command of all Russian armies.

September 9.—The United States demands recall of Austro-Hungarian Ambassador, Dr. Dumba.

September 20.—The Bulgarian army is mobilized.

September 23.—The Greek army is mobilized.

September 25.—The French undertake an offensive in Champagne region, which gains ground but fails to break through the German line.

Anglo-French troops north and south of Lens gain ground in an offensive designed principally to aid the French attack in Champagne; but the British, at Loos, suffer heavy losses.

October 3.—Russia demands that Bulgaria expel German and Austrian officers.

October 4.—Allied forces are landed at Salonica, Greece, to help Serbia resist a threatened Austro-German invasion.

October 5.—Germany regrets the "Arabic" sinking, and declares similar incidents impossible.

Premier Venizelos of Greece resigns, his war policy being supported by Deputies but vetoed by King.

October 7.—Austro-German armies begin an invasion of Serbia.

October 11.—Bulgaria, invading Serbia, enters the war as an ally of Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey; the Serbians are obliged to withdraw to south and west.

October 12.—Edith Cavell, an English nurse at Brussels, is shot by German military authorities, for assisting enemies of Germany to escape from Belgium.

October 15.—The Greek Government refuses to help Serbia, although bound by a defensive treaty.

October 21.—The United States, in a second protest against detention of cargoes for neutral ports, declares Britain's blockade "ineffective, illegal, and indefensible."

October 28.—Aristide Briand (Socialist) succeeds Viviani as Premier of France.

November 9.—The Italian passenger steamer "Ancona" is sunk in the Mediterranean by an Austrian submarine.

November 11.—A War Council is formed in Great Britain.

November 19.—A British expeditionary force in Mesopotamia is defeated at Ctesiphon, near Bagdad.

November 28.—Germany declares the campaign against Serbia at a close, practically the entire country being overrun by Austro-German and Bulgarian armies and the Serbian army being half dispersed, half annihilated.

December 1.—Italy joins in Allied agreement not to conclude a separate peace.

December 3.—The United States requests the recall of German naval and military attachés at Washington.

December 6.—The United States protests to Austria-Hungary against the "wanton slaughter of defenseless noncombatants" on the "Ancona."

December 9.—Chancellor von Beth-

mann-Hollweg informs Reichstag Socialists that Germany cannot propose peace without indicating weakness, but is ready to discuss Entente proposals.

December 15.—General Sir Douglas Haig becomes commander-in-chief of British armies in France and Belgium, succeeding Sir John French.

December 30.—Austria announces that the submarine commander who torpedoed the "Ancona" has been punished.

1916

January 4.—The United States protests to Great Britain against interference with American mails to and from neutral countries.

January 9.—British and French forces withdraw from Gallipoli Peninsula, and the attempt to force the Dardanelles is abandoned.

January 11-17.—Montenegro is overrun by Austro-Hungarian armies.

January 24-27.—A compulsory service bill applicable to unmarried men between 18 and 41 passes British House of Commons and House of Lords, and receives royal assent.

February 1.—The British passenger steamer "Appam" is brought into Hampton Roads, Va., by a German prize crew.

February 10.—Germany and Austria announce that they will treat armed enemy merchant ships as war vessels.

February 16.—The Turkish fortress at Erzerum, Armenia, is captured by Russians.

February 21.—The Germans launch a great offensive at Verdun, destined to last until August, but to fail in the attempt to break through French line.

February 26.—Austrian armies force Italians to evacuate Durazzo, Albania.

March 8.—Germany declares war on Portugal, for breaches of neutrality.

March 15.—Admiral von Tirpitz, foremost advocate of submarine ruthlessness, resigns as German Minister of Marine.

March 24.—The British Channel steamer "Sussex" is torpedoed without warning by a German submarine.

April 3.—The French make their first important counter-attack at Verdun.

April 18.—The United States warns Germany that unless present methods of submarine warfare are abandoned, diplomatic relations will be severed.

April 20.—Russian troops are landed in France.

April 22.—A German attempt to land arms and ammunition in Ireland is thwarted; Sir Roger Casement, Irish nationalist leader, is taken prisoner.

April 24.—A revolution breaks out in Dublin, Ireland, led by members of Sinn Fein society; suppressed within a week, casualties on both sides totalling 304 killed and 1,000 wounded; sixteen leaders are convicted of treason and shot.

April 28.—A besieged British army of 9,000, under General Townshend, surrenders to the Turks at Kut-el-Amara upon exhaustion of food; thus the first British attempt to reach Bagdad fails.

May 4.—Germany informs United States that submarine commanders have been ordered not to sink merchant vessels without warning and without saving lives.

May 17.—An Austrian offensive causes Italians to withdraw in Trentino.

May 24.—The United States again protests to Great Britain and France against interference with mails at sea, declaring it can no longer be tolerated.

May 25.—The British Government's new compulsory military service bill, applicable to men between 18 and 41, receives royal assent.

May 31.—British and German fleets meet off Jutland (Denmark) in the greatest naval engagement of history, the Germans finally withdrawing; British admit loss of six large cruisers and eight destroyers; Germans admit loss of a battleship, a battle cruiser, four light cruisers, and five destroyers; 9,500 lives are lost.

June 4.—A Russian offensive is begun on front of 250 miles in Volhynia, Galicia, and Bukowina; the Russians later claiming 200,000 prisoners in three weeks.

June 5.—Earl Kitchener, British Minister of War, on his way to Russia is drowned by the sinking of cruiser "Hampshire" by mine or torpedo.

June 6.—Continued German assaults at Verdun (beginning in February) result in capture of Fort Vaux.

June 14.—An Economic Conference of the Allies is held at Paris.

June 16.—The Austrian offensive against Italy ends, and an Italian counter-offensive is begun.

June 28.—Karl Liebknecht, German Socialist, is sentenced to thirty months' imprisonment for peace activities.

July 1.—A great Allied offensive is launched by British and French, at River Somme—to last until November, to gain ground, but to fail in its larger purpose.

July 9.—The German commercial submarine "Deutschland," arrives at Baltimore, having crossed the Atlantic with cargo of chemicals—returning on August 23 with gold, nickel and rubber.

July 23.—Great Britain replies to United States mail protest, upholding efficiency of methods.

July 26.—The United States protests to Great Britain against blacklisting of certain firms and individuals.

August 3.—Sir Roger Casement is hanged at London for treason in promoting the Irish rebellion.

August 7-9.—Italian troops capture Gorizia, in a brilliant attack.

August 27.—Italy declares war on Germany.

Rumania enters the war and begins an invasion of Transylvania, Hungary.

August 29.—Field Marshal von Hindenburg succeeds General von Falkenhayn as German Chief of Staff.

September 4.—Bulgarian and German troops invade Dobrudja, Rumania, overrunning the whole district by January.

September 14.—The British use for first time (in the Somme battle) the "tank" or armored and armed motor truck, capable of crossing trenches and demolishing obstacles.

October 8.—The German war submarine "U-53" sinks six European merchant steamships off Nantucket.

October 11-16.—Greece's fleet is taken over by Allied fleet; the government of Venizelos is recognized.

October 24.—The French at Verdun regain important positions lost to Germans from February to June.

November 1.—The German merchant submarine "Deutschland" arrives at New London, Conn., on a second voyage, returning safely on December 10.

November 5.—A new Kingdom of Poland is proclaimed by Germany and Austria, confined to territory conquered from Russia.

November 7.—Cardinal Mercier, of Belgium, issues protests to civilized world against deportation of Belgian citizens for forced labor in Germany.

November 19.—After decisively defeating Rumanians in Transylvania, German armies begin an invasion of Rumania; Bucharest, the capital, is reached on December 6.

November 21.—**Francis-Joseph**, Emperor of Austria and King of Hungary, dies at Vienna; he is succeeded by his grand-nephew Charles I.

Dr. Aldred Zimmermann succeeds Von Jagow as Minister of Foreign Affairs in Germany.

December 6.—David Lloyd George becomes Premier of Great Britain, succeeding Asquith.

December 12.—Germany offers to enter into peace negotiations; the offer is later declared by the ten Allies to be "empty and insincere."

General Nivelle succeeds Joffre as Commander-in-Chief of the French armies.

December 18.—President Wilson sends a note to the belligerent nations, suggesting an avowal of respective views regarding peace terms.

December 21.—Secretary Lansing declares that the United States is "drawing nearer to the verge of war," later denying change of neutral policy is contemplated.

December 26.—Germany replies to President Wilson's note, proposing a meeting of peace delegates, but failing to state war aims or peace terms.

1917

January 10.—The Entente Governments reply to President Wilson's note, stating general peace terms, which include restoration, reparation, and indemnity.

January 22.—President Wilson addresses United States Senate on peace: "It must be a peace without victory"; there should be an independent and autonomous Poland; outlets to sea should be neutralized and the seas should be free; military and naval armaments must be limited.

January 31.—Germany resumes unrestricted submarine war, declaring that "from February 1, 1917, sea traffic will be stopped with every available weapon and without further notice" [without warning]; American passenger ships may sail once a week under prescribed conditions.

The British Secretary of State for the Colonies declares that captured colonies will never return to German rule.

February 3.—The United States severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

February 4.—President Wilson invites neutral nations to take action against Germany similar to that taken by United States.

February 13.—Denmark, Norway, and Sweden present an identic note to Germany refusing to recognize the submarine blockade as legal.

February 22.—A fleet of seven Netherlands steamers is destroyed by a German submarine, after having been assured of "relative safety."

February 23.—Great Britain inaugurates drastic measures to meet the food crisis by increasing home production and curtailing imports.

February 25.—Kut-el-Amara, in Mesopotamia, is captured by British (after a campaign begun on December 13), retrieving the surrender of April, 1916.

February 26.—President Wilson asks Congress for authority to arm merchant ships.

February 27.—Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg declares in German Reichstag that the United States has submitted to isolation from Germany while guarding the right of its citizens to trade with and travel in France and England.

February 28.—A proposal from Zimmermann, German Foreign Secretary, becomes known, looking to alliance with

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Mexico in event of war with United States, and also suggesting Japanese participation; Mexico to receive financial support and to be compensated with New Mexico, Texas, and Arizona.

March 2-3.—Japan and Mexico deny that any proposal was received from Germany to join in a war against United States; Herr Zimmermann defends his plan, as operative only in event of war.

March 11.—A revolution breaks out in Petrograd, **Russia**, the disturbances beginning over shortage of food, with sympathetic strikes in munition factories and finally with mutiny of troops; the Duma assumes direction of the movement.

Bagdad, most important city of Mesopotamia and terminus of Germany's railway project, is captured by British troops.

March 12.—The United States announces that it has decided to arm merchant vessels.

March 15.—Czar Nicholas abdicates the throne of Russia; Prince Lvoff becomes Premier.

March 17-19.—The **Germans withdraw** before the British, evacuating 1,300 square miles of French territory, from Arras to Soissons, including Bapaume.

Alexandre **Ribot** succeeds Briand as **Premier of France.**

March 26.—The United States refuses to interpret and supplement the Prussian treaty of 1799, with reference to status of enemy residents.

March 27.—A British expedition in the Holy Land defeats the Turks near Gaza.

March 31-April 2.—The British and French capture a score of French villages near St. Quentin, where the German withdrawal had stopped.

April 2.—President **Wilson asks Congress** to declare that recent acts of German Imperial Government are in fact war; the Senate adopts the war resolution, 82 to 6, on April 4; the House, 373 to 50, on April 6.

April 5.—Russian troops advancing from Persia effect a junction with the British army in Asia Minor.

April 6.—The **United States enters the war against Germany**; ninety German vessels (600,000 tons) are seized.

April 7.—Cuba and Panama follow the United States and declare war against Germany.

The German Emperor directs the Chancellor to assist in obtaining franchise reforms for the people.

April 8.—Austria informs the United States that it has decided to sever diplomatic relations.

April 9-May 3.—The **British** launch an **offensive against the German lines near Arras**, carrying Vimy Ridge, gaining three to five miles, and piercing the famous Hindenburg line.

April 11.—Brazil severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

April 13.—Bolivia severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

April 16-May 6.—The **French** launch an **offensive** against the German line along the **Aisne**, advancing on a front of 25 miles between Soissons and Rheims, capturing Craonne Ridge.

April 20.—Turkey severs relations with the United States.

April 21.—A British mission arrives in United States headed by Foreign Secretary Balfour.

April 24.—A French mission arrives in United States, headed by ex-Premier Viviani and Marshal Joffre.

April 28.—Guatemala **breaks** off relations with Germany.

May 4.—The American navy begins active participation in the war, a destroyer flotilla coöperating with the British fleet in the war zone.

May 9.—The Russian Provisional Government declares that "the frightful spectre of civil war and anarchy hovers over Russia, threatening its freedom."

May 11.—The Russian Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates vote to call a peace conference in a neutral country.

May 15.—General **Pétain** succeeds General Nivelle as **Commander-in-Chief of French armies.**

May 15-24.—The Italians make progress in an offensive against the Austrians, from Tolmino to the Adriatic.

May 17.—A. F. Kerensky, a Russian Socialist leader, becomes Minister of War.

May 18.—President Wilson signs a bill creating an army of 500,000 men under a selective conscription system—in addition to Regulars and National Guard.

May 19.—The reorganized provisional government in Russia rejects "all thought of a separate peace," but welcomes a general peace without annexation or indemnity.

June 4-7.—The Austrians in a counter-attack on Carso Plateau recover a third of territory recently lost to Italians.

June 5.—The French Chamber of Deputies, 453 to 55, declares that peace terms must include the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine.

June 7.—With a great mine explosion, the British blast away the top of Wytschaet-Messines Ridge, dominating Ypres from the south, and wipe out a German salient.

June 9.—President Wilson warns the Russian provisional government against German propaganda.

June 12-29.—Greece becomes a belligerent: King Constantine abdicates the throne on June 12, in favor of his son Alexander, in response to the demands of England, France and Russia; Venizelos becomes Premier on June 25, and diplomatic relations with Germany are severed on June 29.

June 13.—Major-General Pershing and his staff arrive in Paris, to prepare for the first American expedition.

June 15.—An American mission to Russia, headed by Elihu Root, is welcomed at Petrograd by the provisional government.

The **first American war loan** is closed, with the $2,000,000,000 offered oversubscribed by 50 per cent.

June 17.—The Russian Duma votes in favor of "an immediate offensive in close coöperation with Russia's allies."

June 18—Haiti severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

June 26.—The first **American troops arrive in France,** having sailed secretly on June 14.

June 28.—Brazil revokes its decree of neutrality—equivalent to a declaration of war on Germany.

July 1-17.—The Russian army, led by Minister of War Kerensky, assumes an offensive (in Galicia) for first time since the revolution; Halicz is captured, and 36,000 German, Austrian, and Turkish prisoners.

July 11.—Premier Ribot declares that France's right to Alsace-Lorraine will not admit of a plebiscite.

July 14.—A German political crisis over peace demands brings the **resignation of Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg** and Foreign Secretary Zimmermann; Dr. Georg Michaelis becomes Chancellor.

July 19.—The German Reichstag adopts a peace resolution (proposed by Socialists, Radicals and Catholics) expressing desire of German people for peace without forcible acquisitions of territory, and with mutual understanding and lasting consideration.

Finland proclaims its independence, the beginning of a widespread movement throughout Russia to establish separate governments.

July 19-26.—The recently victorious **Russian army mutinies** and retreats in the face of a German counter-attack; Kerensky becomes Premier, with unlimited powers.

July 22.—Siam declares war on Germany and Austria.

July 25.—A convention assembles at Dublin to settle the Irish question.

July 27.—The Allies decide to withdraw from Greece, except from Salonica.

Premier Lloyd George declares that Great Britain has enrolled more than 5,000,000 soldiers, besides 500,000 in the navy and 1,000,000 from dominions and colonies.

July 30.—The French High Commissioner to the United States declares that France's present fighting strength is 3,000,000 men, who hold two-thirds of the western front.

July 31.—A Franco-British offensive in Flanders, Belgium, results in an advance of two and a half miles, heavy rains interfering.

August 6.—Richard von Kuehlmann becomes Minister of Foreign Affairs in Germany.

August 7.—Liberia declares war on Germany.

August 14.—China declares war on Germany and Austria.

August 15.—A peace appeal by Pope Benedict (dated August 1) is made public; he suggests disarmament, evacuation of Belgian and French territory, restitution of German colonies, and settlement of political and territorial questions in a conciliatory spirit for the general welfare.

Canadian troops capture Hill 70, dominating Lens (declared impregnable by Germans).

August 20-24.—Dr. Alexander Wekerle becomes Premier of Hungary.

A French attack at Verdun results in the capture of important positions and 4,000 prisoners.

August 24-September 14.—Italian forces capture Monte Santo and Monte San Gabriele, Austrian strongholds near Gorizia.

August 27.—President Wilson replies to the Pope's peace message; he condemns proposals for punitive damages, the dismemberment of empires, and the establishment of economic leagues, but declares that a peace agreement made by present German rulers must be supported by German people.

American exports to neutral countries are placed under Government control.

September 3.—Riga, Russia's second most important seaport, is occupied by Germans, the demoralized Russian army withdrawing.

September 6.—Premier Ribot declares that France will not consent to diplomatic discussion of Alsace-Lorraine.

September 7-10.—Premier Ribot resigns and Paul **Painlevé becomes Premier of France.**

September 8.—Intercepted telegrams from Luxburg, German Chargé in Argentine, to Berlin, recommend that Argentine vessels, if sunk by German submarines, should be destroyed **"without leaving a trace."**

September 15.—A Russian Republic is proclaimed.

September 18.—Premier Painlevé states France's war aims as the disannexation of Alsace-Lorraine, reparation for ruin, and a just peace with guarantees against aggression.

September 19-25.—The Argentine Congress votes to break diplomatic relations with Germany; President Irigoyen does not carry out the recommendation.

September 20-October 12.—A series of British attacks in the Ypres sector are all retarded by muddy ground.

September 21.—German and Austrian replies to the Pope ignore the status of occupied territory, but declare for immediate negotiations among the belligerents; a supplemental reply on September 26 offers to contribute toward compensation to Belgium, but demands economic rights and a guarantee against any "Belgian menace such as threatened Germany in 1914."

October 6.—Peru severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

October 7.—Uruguay severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

October 12.—The German Minister of Marine, Admiral von Capelle, resigns following a mutiny in the Baltic Fleet.

October 17.—The American transport **"Antilles,"** homeward bound, is torpedoed and sunk with the loss of 70 lives.

A naval engagement in the Gulf of Riga results in the sinking of a Russian battleship.

October 20.—Five Zeppelin airships are destroyed in France after a raid over England.

October 23-25.—A French offensive near Soissons results in a maximum gain of nearly four miles with 12,000 prisoners.

October 24-November 10.—An Austro-German army, with overwhelming artillery, breaks through the Italian line and causes withdrawal not only from Austrian territory, but from northern Italy to the Piave River line.

October 26.—**Brazil declares war on Germany,** following the sinking of a fourth merchant vessel.

October 27.—Subscriptions for the second American war loan are closed; acceptances totalling $3,808,766,150.

October 30.—Count George F. von Hertling succeeds Michaelis as Chancellor of Germany.

Vittorio Orlando becomes Premier of Italy, succeeding Boselli.

November 3.—Germany announces the first capture of American soldiers, north of Luneville.

November 5.—American patrol boat "Alcedo" is sunk by a German submarine with a loss of 21 lives.

November 8-14.—A second revolution in Russia, under direction of Bolsheviki (or Maximalist faction of Radical Socialists), results in overthrow of Kerensky government; the new Premier Lenine and Foreign Minister Trotzky declare for an immediate democratic peace, the handing-over of land to peasants, and the convocation of a constitutional assembly.

November 9.—A Supreme War Council is created, composed of the Prime Minister and a military representative from each Government.

November 12.—Premier Lloyd George speaks in Paris on lack of coöperation among the Allies; he recalls the Serbian "tragedy," its repetition in Rumania, and the Italian disaster.

November 13-15.—Painlevé resigns and Georges Clémenceau becomes Premier of France.

November 17.—The British in Palestine occupy Jaffa.

November 20.—The British at Cambrai move forward without the usual artillery preparation, gaining five miles on a wide front and capturing 8,000 Germans; "tanks" play an important part.

November 28.—The revolutionary government in Russia makes public a secret agreement entered into with Italy on April 26, 1915, by Great Britain, France and Russia; Italy's claims to Austrian territory were recognized in return for joining the Allies.

November 29.—An Inter-Allied Conference is opened at Paris, the Premiers of France and England attending and Col. Edw. M. House representing U. S.

November 30-December 5.—German counter-attacks regain half the ground recently lost to British near Cambrai.

December 1.—German East Africa, last and largest of Germany's overseas possessions, comes under complete control of Allied forces.

December 4-7.—**The United States** Congress, following recommendations by President Wilson, **declares war on Austria-Hungary.**

December 6.—A large section of Halifax, Nova Scotia, is destroyed by an explosion; 150 persons are killed and 20,000 rendered homeless.

United States destroyer "Jacob Jones" is sunk by a German submarine, with a loss of 66 lives.

December 7.—An armistice goes into effect on the Russo-German front.

December 8.—Ecuador severs diplomatic relations with Germany.

December 10.—**Jerusalem is occupied by British forces.**

December 20.—Premier Lloyd George states Britain's peace terms: restoration of German-occupied territory, with reparation; the future of German colonies to be based upon wishes of native races.

December 22.—A peace conference assembles at Brest-Litovsk, German-occupied Russia, with delegates from Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey; the Central Powers propose a general peace without forcible annexations and indemnities, the Allies to join with Russia; Russia must recognize the demand of the peoples of Poland, Lithuania, Courland, Esthonia and Livonia for self-government, and German troops will not be withdrawn from those territories.

1918

January 5.—Premier Lloyd George restates war aims of Great Britain, declaring that destruction of Germany or Austria-Hungary and the separation of Turkey's capital are not war aims; the Alsace-Lorraine wrong of 1871 must be reconsidered, the Dardanelles must be neutralized, and Arabia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria, and Palestine must not be restored to Turkish sovereignty.

January 7.—Earl Reading, Lord Chief Justice of England, is appointed High Commissioner and Special Ambassador to the United States.

January 8.—President Wilson addresses Congress on America's program of world peace, specifying fourteen "rectifications of wrong and assertions of right."

January 16.—The United States Fuel Administrator orders the closing of manufacturing industries for five days, and of all non-essential businesses for nine Mondays, to save fuel and relieve railroads.

January 20.—In a naval engagement at the Dardanelles, with British vessels, a Turkish battleship is sunk and another disabled.

January 21.—Strikes in Austrian cities, in favor of peace, but aggravated by food shortage, cause the closing of important war industries.

January 24.—Chancellor von Hertling replies to peace terms of Premier Lloyd George and President Wilson—declining to allow interference in Russian affairs, leaving Italian matters to Austria-Hungary to answer, pledging support to Turkey against proposals affecting its territory, declaring that withdrawal from France should be agreed upon between Germany and France, that Belgian details be settled at a peace conference, and that dismemberment of Alsace-Lorraine can never be considered.

The Austro-Hungarian Prime Minister states that Austria demands no territory from Russia, and makes overtures for a direct "exchange of ideas" with the United States.

January 28-February 4.—Strikes occur in Berlin and other German cities in favor of peace without indemnities or annexations, the abolition of militarism in war industries, and participation of workmen in peace parleys.

February 5.—The British transport "Tuscania," carrying 2,200 American soldiers under British convoy, is sunk off Ireland, 170 soldiers being lost.

February 6.—The French High Commissioner to United States declares there are 4,725,000 French soldiers under arms, nearly three million being in war zone, holding three-fourths of the western front of 470 miles.

February 9.—The first peace treaty is signed between representatives of Central Powers and the new Republic of Ukraine, in Southern Russia.

Germany claims the capture of American prisoners at Xivray, east of St. Mihiel.

February 11.—President Wilson, addressing Congress, analyzes recent Austro-German peace utterances and restates four principles upon which a just and permanent peace could be founded.

The Russian Government, though refusing to sign a peace treaty, declares war with Central Powers at an end.

February 18-19.—Germany resumes hostilities against Russia; the Russian Government declares its willingness to sign the peace treaty dictated by the Teutons.

February 22.—Norway guarantees that American imports will neither reach Germany nor replace Norwegian products exported to Germany.

February 25.—Chancellor von Hertling expresses fundamental agreement with President Wilson's four principles, and declares that peace can be discussed on such a basis; England's war aims are still "thoroughly imperialistic."

February 27.—Japanese military operations in Siberia are proposed, to save vast quantities of military supplies.

March 3.—A peace treaty is signed at Brest-Litovsk, between Russia and the four Central Powers; besides territory already occupied by Germans, new terms compel Russia to "evacuate" Ukrainia, Esthonia and Livonia, Finland, the Aland Islands, and the Transcaucasian districts of Erivan, Kars, and Batum.

March 5.—A preliminary peace treaty is signed between Rumania and the Central Powers, Rumania giving up province of Dobrudja to the Danube and accepting "frontier rectifications" demanded by Austria-Hungary.

March 7.—A treaty of peace is signed between Germany and Finland.

March 9.—The Government of Russia is transferred from Petrograd to Moscow.

March 10.—The American Secretary of War, Mr. Baker, arrives in France on a tour of inspection.

It is announced that **American troops are in trenches at four points**—on the Lorraine front, northwest of Toul; in the Champagne; in Alsace near Luneville; and in the Chemin-des-Dames region northwest of Rheims.

March 11.—President Wilson expresses sympathy with Russian people in a message to the Congress of Soviets, meeting at Moscow to ratify German peace treaty.

March 20.—The United States seizes Dutch vessels in American ports after giving notice that the shipping agreement reached with Allies, postponed through fear of Germany, should be put into effect.

March 21.—The British Admiralty publishes its record of merchant ships sunk to end of 1917; British ships, 7,079,492 tons; total ships, 11,827,572 tons.

March 21-29.—**The greatest battle of the war** is begun by the Germans, against fifty miles of British and French line in Picardy—from Arras to La Fére; 1,000 square miles of territory are lost by Allies.

March 23.—Paris is bombarded by long-range guns from a distance of seventy miles.

March 29.—General Ferdinand Foch, the French strategist, becomes commander-in-chief of the Allied forces in France—British, French, American, Italian, Belgian, and Portuguese.

April 2.—The Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, Count Czernin, declares that the four points laid down by President Wilson on February 11 are a basis on which to discuss general peace; he doubts, whether the President will succeed in uniting his Allies on such a basis.

April 6.—President Wilson condemns Germany's peace treaties forced upon Russia and Rumania, and proclaims that America will meet with "force to the utmost" German's challenge.

April 9-16.—The German attack is shifted to the north, from La Bassée Canal to Armentières, British and Portuguese defenders being forced to retire six miles; in the Ypres salient, the Germans force the British to evacuate portions of Messines Ridge and Passchendaele Ridge —positions gained at great sacrifice earlier in the war.

April 10.—The Russian Commissioner of Commerce states that the treaty with Germany has taken away 300,000 square miles of territory, with 56,000,000 inhabitants (32 per cent. of Russia's entire population), besides one-third of her railways, 73 per cent. of iron, and 89 per cent. of coal.

April 11.—The French Government makes public a letter from Emperor Charles, of Austria (dated March 31, 1917) communicated to President Poincaré, pledging support to "France's just claims regarding Alsace-Lorraine" and to reëstablishment of Belgium and Serbia.

April 12.—The Irish Convention, after eight months of deliberation, presents a divided report to the British Government, proposing an Irish Parliament of two houses; it was not found possible to overcome objections of Ulster Unionists.

April 13.—German troops occupy Helsingfors, Finland.

April 14.—The Navy Department announces that the U. S. S. "Cyclops" has been missing since March 4, with 293 persons on board.

April 17.—French reinforcements reach the British in the north, while Italians form the right wing of the united army in France.

April 18.—Premier Lloyd George's Man Power bill becomes a law in Great Britain, raising the age limit for compulsory service to fifty years, and extending conscription to Ireland.

COUNTRIES AT WAR

(And date when each became a belligerent)

1914	
Austria	July 28
Serbia	July 28
Germany	August 1
Russia	August 1
France	August 3
Belgium	August 4
Great Britain	August 4
Montenegro	August 7
Japan	August 23
Turkey	October 29

1915	
Italy	May 23
San Marino	
Bulgaria	October 11

1916	
Portugal	March 8
Rumania	August 27

1917	
United States	April 6
Cuba	April 7
Panama	April 7
Greece	June 29
Siam	July 22
Liberia	August 7
China	August 14
Brazil	October 26

PRONUNCIATION OF WAR NAMES

THE PRONUNCIATION OF WAR NAMES

By C. O. Sylvester Mawson, Litt.D., Ph.D.

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KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

Vowel sounds: Ale, bâre, ärm, ask, senāte, ăm, orgăn, sofá; ẽve, ẽvent, ẽnd, novĕl, bakẽr; Ice, Ill; ōld, ôrb, ŏbey, ŏdd, cŏmbine; ūse, ûrn, ŭnite, ŭp, locŭst; fo͝od, fo͝ot; ou as in *out*; oi as in *oil*; ü as in *menu*.

Note.—ü, as in French *menu* or German *Müller*, has no equivalent in English. To produce it, hold the lips rigidly in position to say o͞o and attempt to say ē. ö or œ in German resembles the English u in *urn*; e. g., *Göthe* or *Goethe* is pronounced gö'tē.

Consonants: As in English. *ch* as in *chair*; *g* as in *go*; *kw* for *qu* as in *queen*; *s* as in *so*; *sh* as in *she*; *z* as in *zone*; *zh* as *z* in *azure*.

Special symbols: ʜ (small capital) for *ch* as in German *ich* or Scotch *loch*; ɴ (small capital) indicates nasal tone of preceding vowel, as in French *bon* (bɴ); ŋ (= ng) for n before the sound of *k* or hard *g* as in *bank* (băŋk), *finger* (fĭŋ'gẽr); ' indicates the elision of a vowel, or a mere suggestion of a vowel sound, as in *Ypres* (ē'pr').

Accents: The *principal* or *primary* accent is indicated by a heavy mark (ˈ), and the *secondary* accent by a lighter mark (ˌ); thus, *Bouvines* (bo͞o'vẽnˌ); *Massachusetts* (măs'ă-chō͞o'sĕts).

Note.—French names have the primary accent on the final full syllable, but this accent should generally be very slight. The other syllables are marked with equal stress. In German names, the principal accent is placed earlier in the word, as in English. In Hungarian and Bohemian names, the accent is on the first syllable. In Polish, as in Italian, the accent is on the penult. In Russian, the accent is capricious but very marked.

Aachen (*or* Aix-la-Chapelle), ʜ'ĸžn
Aalst (*or* Alost), ĭlst
Abbeville, ăb'vĭl'
Abée, ă'bā'
Acheux, ă'shθ'
Achicourt, ă'shē'kōo'r'
Achiet, ă'shyĕ'
Acoudo, ă'kō'dō'
Acox, ă'kŏ'
Acq, ăk
Adelsberg, ĸ'dĭl'z-bẽrĸ
Adige (river), ĸ'dē-jĭ
Adinkerke, ăd'ĭn-kẽr'kĕ
Adria, ĸ'drē-ă
Aerschot, ĸr'sĸŏt
Aerseele, ĸr'sā'lĕ
Aettfryske, ĭt'frē-kĕ
Aahre, ĸ'rē
Agincourt, ă'zhĭn'kōo'r'; *Eng.* ăj'ĭn-kŏrt
Agordo, ĸ-gō'r'dō
Ahrdorf, ĸr'dôrf
Ahrweiler, ĸr'vĭ-lẽr
Aidin, ĭ-dēn'
Ainecourt, ĭn'kr'-vē'
Aintab, ĭn'tăb'
Aire, ĕr
Aisne (river), ān
Aivenne, ā'vĕn'
Aix-la-Chapelle (*or* Aachen), ĕks'lă'-shă'pĕl'
Ala, ĸ'lă
Albeek, ĭl'bĕk
Albert, ăl'bẽr'
Albesdorf, ĭl'bĕz-dôrf
Albona, ĭl-bō'nă
Aleppo, ă-lĕp'ō
Alexandrette (*or* Iskanderun), ĭl'ĕg-zăn-drĕt'ă
Alken, ĭl'kĕn
Allarmont, ă'lăr'môn'
Alle, ĭl'ĕ
Allennes, ă'lĕn'
Allenstein, ĭl'ĕn-shtĭn'
Allendrelle, ă'lôn'drĕl'
Alost (*or* Aalst), ĭ'lŏst
Alsdorf, ĭls'dôrf
Alsemberg, ĭl'zĕm-bẽrĸ
Altheim, ĭlt'hī'mĕn
Altkirch, ĭlt'kĭrk'
Altzingen, ĭlt'zĭng-ĕn
Amance, ă'mĭns'
Amanweiler, ĸ'măn-vĭ'lẽr
Ambercourt, ĭn'bă'k.ōo'r'
Amblimont, ĭn'blē'môn'
Ambronay, ĭn'br'-nĕ'
Amel, ĸ'mĕl
Amiens, ă'myĭn'
Amobises, ă'mō'ēz'

Amont, ă'môn'
Amongies, ă'mō'zhē'
Ampezzo, ĭm-pĕt'sō
Ancre (river), ĭn'kr'
Anderlecht, ĭn'dẽr-lĕkt
Andenne, ĭn'dĕn'
Angres, ĭn'gr'
Ankée, ĭn'kē'
Anlehen, ă'nĕăh'
Anlier, ĭn'lyē'
Anloy, ĭn'lwĭ'
Anneux, ă'nō'
Annevoie, ăn'vwă'
Anor, ă'nôr'
Anould, ă'nōō'
Anoux, ă'nōō'
Ans, ĭns
Anseaville, ĭn'sō'vē'
Anthée, ĭn'tĭ'
Anthelt, ăn'tĭt
Anthelupt, ăn'tĕ-lūp'
Antilly, ĭn'tĭ'yē'
Antioch, ĭn'tĭ-ŏk
Antreppe, ĭn'trĕp'
Anvin, ĭn'vĭn'
Any, ă'nĕ'
Anzelin, ĭnz'lĭn'
Anzin, ĭn'zĭn'
Appilly, ă'pĕ'yē'
Apremont, ă'pr'-môn'
Arbe, ărb
Arcoy, ăr'sē'
Archennes, ăr'shĕn'
Arches, ărsh
Arco, ĸ'kō
Ardahan, ĸr'dă-hăn'
Ardoye, ăr'dwă'
Argenteau, ăr'zhăn'tō'
Argonne, ăr'gŏn'
Arleux, ăr'lū'
Arlon, ĸr'lôn'
Armentières, ăr'măn'tyĕr'
Arnaville, ăr'nă'vē'
Arques, ărk
Arracourt, ă'ră'kōo'r'
Arras, ă'răs'
Arraye, ă'rĕ'
Arry, ă'rē'
Ars, ĸrz
Arsdorf, ĸrs'dôrf
Artes, ărt
Artuis, ăr'twĭ'
Arville, ăr'vē'
Asch, ăsh
Ascq, ăsk
Asiago, ĸ'zyă-gō
Asolo, ĸ'zō-lō
Assche, ăs'ĸĕ
Aswveiler, ĸs'vĭ-lẽr

Ath, ăt
Athenaus, ă'tĕ-nŭs'
Athies, ă'tĭ'
Athus, ă'tü'
Attainville, ă'tĭn'vē'
Attigny, ă'tĭ'nyē'
Atweiler, ĭt'vĭ-lẽr
Aube (river), ōb
Aubel, ō'bĕl'
Aubencheul, ō'bĭn'shθ'
Aubenton, ō'bĭn'tōn'
Auberive, ōb'rē'v'
Auberx, ō'bĕr'
Aubigny, ō'bē'nyē'
Aublain, ō'blĭn'
Auchel, ō'shĕ'
Auchy, ō'shĕ'
Audenarde (*or* Oudenarde), ou'dĕ-nĕr'dĕ
Audincourt, ō'dĭn'kōo'r'
Audun, ō'dŭn'
Auge, ăzh
Augustowo, ou'gŏs-tō'vō
Aulnois, ō'nwă'
Aulnoye, ō'nwă'
Aumetz, ou'mĕts
Aurenne, ou-rĕn'
Autel-Bas, ō'tĕ'-bă'
Auteing, ō'twĭn'
Autrey, ō'trĕ'
Auvillers, ō'vē'lŭr'
Avecapelle, ă'v'kă'pĕl'
Avelghem, ĸ'vĕl-gĕm
Avesnes, ă'vĕn'
Avesnes, ă'vĕn'
Aviano, ĸ-vyĕ'nō
Avion, ă'vyŏn'
Avioth, ă'vyō'
Avricourt, ă'vrē'kōo'r'
Avril, ă'vrē'
Ay, ă'ĕ
Ayette, ă'yĕt'
Awenne, ă'vĕn'
Azerailles, ă'zĕ-rĕ'y'
Azoudange, ĸt'sou-dăng'ĕ

Bacourat, bă'kă'ră'
Badia, bă-dē'ă
Baelegem, bă'lĕ-gĕm
Baelen, bă'lĕn; bă'lĭn'
Bagdad (*or* Bhagdad), băg-dăd'; *Eng.* băg'dăd
Bagneux, băn'yō'
Bailleux, bă'lō'
Bailleul, bă'yūl'
Baisieux, bĕ'zyō'
Baku, bă-kōo'
Bâle (*or* Basel), băl
Ballersdorf, băl'ẽrz-dôrf

Pronunciation of War Names

Bambrugge, bäm′brōōg′ē
Bannonville, bä′nôn′vēl′
Bapaume, bä′pōm′
Barbarano, bär′bä-rä′nō
Bar-le-Duc, bär′-lē-dük′
Baroncourt, bä′rôn′kōōr′
Baronville, bä′rôn′vēl′
Baronweiler, bä′rôn-vī′lĕr
Barst, bärst
Barvaux, bär′vō′
Basoonp, bä′kōō′
Basel (*or* Bâle), bä′zĕl
Basra (*or* Busra), bŭs′rä
Bassano, bäs-sä′nō
Bassée, La, lä′ bä′sā′
Bastogne, bäs′tôn′y′
Batilly, bä′tē′yē′
Batum, bä-tōōm′
Baudrecourt, bō′dr′-kōōr′
Bauffe, bōf
Baugnies, bō′nyē′
Baulon, bō′lôn′
Bautersem, bou′tĕr-sĕm
Bavay, bä′vē′
Bazeilles, bä′zā′y′
Beaucourt, bō′kōōr′
Beaumetz, bō′mĕs′
Beaumont, bō′mōn′
Beauquesne, bō′kān′
Beauraing, bō′răN′
Beaurevoir, bō′rē-vwä′
Beauvais, bō′vē′
Beauval, bō′vàl′
Beauvillers, bō′vē′lār′
Bebing, bā′bĭng
Bechy, bĕk′ē
Beckingen, bĕk′ĭng-ĕn
Becquevoort, bĕk′vōrt′
Beeringen, bā′rĭng-ĕn
Beernem, bār′nĕm
Beerst, bārst
Beine, bān
Beinheim, bīn′hīm
Beirut (*or* Beyrout), bā′rōōt′
Belfort, bĕl′fôr′
Belgrade, bĕl′grād′
Bellefontaine, bĕl′fôn′tĕn′
Belleghem, bĕl′ē-gĕm
Bellem, bĕl′ĕm
Bellevaux, bĕl′vō′
Belliocourt, bĕl′ē′kōōr′
Bellignies, bĕ-lē′nyē′
Belluno, bĕl-lōō′nō
Belœil, bā-lō′ē
Belval, bĕl′vàl′
Belverne, bĕl′vĕrn′
Beney, bĕ-nē′
Benningen, bĕn′ĭng-ĕn
Bensdorf, bĕns′dôrf
Berchem, bĕr′kĕm
Berg, bĕrĸ
Berlaimont, bĕr′lē′môn′
Bernecourt, bĕrn′kōōr′
Bernissart, bĕr′nē′sär′
Bernweiler, bĕrn′vī-lĕr
Berquette, bĕr′kĕt′
Berthincourt, bĕr′tĂN′kōōr′
Bertogne, bĕr′tôn′y′
Bertrichamps, bĕr′trē′shĂN′
Bertrix, bĕr′trē′
Berzée, bĕr′zā′
Besançon, bē′zĂN′sôN′
Bethonvilliers, bē-tôN′vē′yār′
Béthune, bā′tün′
Bettainvillers, bē′tĂN′vē′lār′
Beuthen, boi′tĕn
Bettemberg, bĕt′ĕm-bĕrĸ
Beverloo, bĕv′ĕr-lō′
Beverst, bĕv′ĕrst
Beyrout (*or* Beirut), bā′rōōt′
Bhagdad (*or* Bagdad), bäg-dăd′
Bialystok, byä′lĭ-stôk
Bienville, byĂN′vēl′
Biesme, bē′ĕm′
Biestre, bē′ĕs′tr′
Bievre, bē′ĕv′r′
Bihain, bē′ĭN′
Bilsen, bĭl′sĕn
Billy, bē′yē′
Binche, bĂNsh
Bioncourt, byôN′kōōr′
Bionville, byôN′vēl′
Bisten, bĭs′tĕn
Bitburg, bĭt′bōōrĸ
Bitschweiler, bĭt′shvī′lĕr
Biwer, bē′vā′
Blandain, blĂN′dĂN′
Blagny, blä′nyē′
Blamont, blä′môN′
Blaregnies, blä′rā′nyē′
Blaton, blä′tôN′
Bleialf, blī′älf
Bleiburg, blī′bōōrĸ
Bleid, blīd
Blenod, blē′nō′
Bloemendaele, blōō′mĕn-dä′lē
Blumenthal, blōō′mĕn-tāl
Bockryck, bôk′rĕk
Boelhe, bōōl′ē
Boesinghe, bōō′sĭng-ē
Boevange, bōō′vàng-ē
Bohain, bō′ĂN′
Boisleux, bwä′lû′
Boismont, bwä′môN′
Boltweiler, bōlt′vī-lĕr
Bomal, bō′mäl′
Bomy, bō′mē′
Boncourt, bôN′kōōr′
Bonhome, bō′nôm′
Bonlez, bôN′lē′
Bonnes, bôn
Bonneville, bôn′vēl′
Bonnevoye, bôn′vwä′
Bonviller, bôN′vē′yā′
Boom, bōm
Borg, bôrĸ
Borgo, bôr′gō
Borsbeke, bôrz′bā-kē
Bosphorus (*or* Bosporus), bŏs′**pō**-rŭs
Bosseval, bŏs′vàl′
Botoshani, bō-tō-shän′y′
Botzen, bōt′sĕn
Bouchain, bōō′shĂN′
Bouchout, bōō′shōō′
Bouconville, bōō′kôN′vēl′
Boucq, bōōk
Boudour, bōō′dōōr′
Bougnies, bōō′nyē′
Bouillon, bōō′yôN′
Boulers, bōō′lār′
Boulogne, bōō′lôn′y′ ; *Eng.* bōō-lōn′
Boult, bōōl
Bouquemaison, bōōk′mā′zôN′
Bourbourg, bōōr′bōōr′
Bourcy, bōōr′sē′
Bourdonnay, bōōr′dō′nā′
Bourg-Bruche, bōōrĸ′-brōōĸ′ē
Bourg-Fidèle, bōōr′-fē′dāl′
Bourgogne, bōōr′gôn′y′
Boursies, bōōr′sē′
Boussy, bōō′sē′
Bousval, bōōs′vàl′
Bouverie, bōōv′rē′
Bouvignes, bōō′vēn′y′
Bouvigny, bōō′vē′nyē′
Bouvines, bōō′vēn′
Bouvron, bōō′vrôN′
Bouxières, bōō′zyār′
Boves, bôv
Bovigny, bō′vē′nyē′
Bovrinnes, bō′vrĭn′
Bra, brä
Brabant-le-roi, brà′bĂN′-lē-rwä′
Braffe, bräf
Braila, brä-ē′lä
Braine, brān
Braine-le-Comte, brān′-lē-kôNt′
Braives, brāv
Branchon, brĂN′shôN′
Brand, brănt
Braquis, brà′kē′
Bras, brä
Bratte, brät
Braunsberg, brounz′bĕrĸ
Braux, brō
Bray, brē
Bray-sur-Seine, brē′-sür′-sān′
Bray-sur-Somme, brē′-sür′-sôm′
Breganze, brā-gänt′sā
Brenta (river), brĕn′tä
Brest-Litovsk, brĕst′-lyĕ-tôfsk′
Bretton, brĕt′ôn
Brie, brē
Briey, brē′ē′
Brin, brĂN
Brioni brē-ō′nē
Brixen, brĭk′sĕn
Brouay, brōō′ē′
Brouck, brouk
Brouckirk, brou′kĭrk
Brouveliers, brōōv′lyār′
Bruay, brü′ē′
Bruges, brüzh
Bruly-de-Pesche, brü′lē′-dē-pāsh′
Brusa (*or* Brussa), brōō′sä
Brussels (*or* Bruxelles), brŭs′ĕlz
Bruxelles (*or* Brussels), brü′sĕl′
Bruyeres, brü′yār′
Bry, brē
Bucquoy, bü′kwä′
Buczacz, bōō′chách
Buderschied, bōō′dĕr-shēt
Budin, bōō′dĭn
Bug (river), bŏg
Buhl, bōōl
Buire, bwēr
Buironfosse, bwē′rôN′fôs′
Bukharest (*or* Bucharest), bōō′kä-rĕst′
Bukowina (Bukovina), bōō′kō-vē′nä
Bullingen, bōōl′ĭng-ĕn
Bully, bü′yē′
Bult, bül
Burano, bōō-rä′nō
Bures, bür
Burnhaupt, bōōrn′houpt
Bursf, bōōrsf
Burtscheid, bōōrt′shīt
Busendorf, bōō′zĕn-dôrf
Bushire, bōō-shēr′
Busigny, bü′sē′nyē′
Busra (*or* Basra), bŭs′rä
Butgenbach, bōōt′gĕn-bäĸ
Buttia, bōōt′yä
Buzegney, bü′zā′nyē′
Buzy, bü′zē′
Buzières, bü′zyār′

Caesarea (*or* Kaisarieh), sĕs-ā-rē′ā
Caeskerke, kāz-kĕr′kē
Calais, kà′lē′ ; *Eng.* kăl′ā
Callenelle, kàl′nĕl′
Camblain, kĂN′blĂN′
Cambrai (*or* Cambray), kĂN′brē′
Cambrin, kĂN′brĂN′
Camisano, kä′mē-zä′nō
Canfanaro, kän′fä-nä′rō
Cantain, kĂN′tĂN′
Capelle, La, lä′ kà′pĕl′
Capodistria, kä′pō-dēs′trē-ä
Cappet, käp′ĕt
Caprino, kä-prē′nō
Carency, kà′rĂN′sē′
Carignan, kà′rēn′yäN′
Carnières, kär′nyār′
Carole, kä-rō′lä
Carvin, kär′vĂN′
Cassel, kàs′ĕl′
Casteau, kàs′tō′
Castelfranco, käs-tĕl′frăŋ′kō
Caster, kàs′tā′
Castre, kàs′tr′
Castua, käs′twä
Cateau, Le, lē kà′tō′
Catillon, kà′tē′yôN′
Caudry, kō′drē′
Cavalese, kä′vä-lā′zā
Cavarzere, kä-vär′dzā-rā
Cerfontaine, sĕr′fôN′tĕn′
Cernavoda (*or* Tchernavoda), **chĕr′nä**-vō′dä
Cernay, sĕr′nē′
Cetinje (*or* Cettinje), tsĕt′ĕn-yē
Chalons-sur-Marne, shä′**lôN′-sür′**-märn′
Chalon-sur-Saône, shà′lôN′-sür′-sōn′
Chambley, shĂN′blē′
Chambrey, shĂN′brē′

Champagney, shäɴ′pa′nyĕ′
Champigny, shäɴ′pē′nye′
Chapelle, La, là′ sha′pĕl′
Charency, sha′räɴ′sē′
Charey, sha′rē′
Charleroi (*or* Charleroy), shär′lĕ-rwä′
Charleville, shärl′vĕl′
Charmois, shär′mwä′
Chassart, shäs′är′
Chastre, shäs′tr′
Chatalja (*or* Tchatalja), chä-täl′jä
Château-Regnault, shä′tō′-rĕ′nyō′
Châteauroux, shä′tō′rōō′
Château-Salins, shä′tō′-sa′lĕɴ′
Château-Thierry, shä′tō′-tyĕ′rē′
Châtel, shä′tĕl′
Châtelet, shät′lĕ′
Châtillon, shä′tĕ′yōɴ′
Châtillon-sur-Marne, shä′tĕ′yōɴ′-sür′-märn′
Chaudefontaine, shōd′fōɴ′tān′
Chaulnes, shō′n′
Chaumont, shō′mōɴ′
Chauny, shō′nē′
Chauvency, shō′väɴ′sē′
Chaux, shō
Chenée, shĕ-nē′
Chenevières, shĕn′vyär′
Chenicourt, shĕ-nē′kōōr′
Cherain, shĕ′räɴ′
Cherso, kĕr′sō
Chievres, shē′ĕ′vr′
Chimay, shē′mĕ′
Chiny, shē′nē′
Chioggia, kyōd′jä
Ciney, sē′nē′
Cittadella, chēt′tä-dĕl′lä
Cividale, chē′vē-dä′lä
Clary, klī′rē′
Clavier, klä′vyä′
Clemency, klĕm′äɴ′sē′
Clerken, klĕr′kĕn
Clermont, klĕr′mōɴ′
Clervaux, klĕr′vō′
Cleurie, klū′rē′
Clezentaine, klĕz′äɴ′tān′
Codroipo, kō-drō′ē-pō
Coingt, kwäɴ
Coiroy, kō′rwä′
Combles, kōɴ′bl′
Comines, kō′mēn′
Commercy, kō′mĕr′sē′
Compiègne, kōɴ′pyĕn′y′
Condé, kōɴ′dā′
Conegliano, kō′nāl-yä′nō
Conflans, kōɴ′fläɴ′
Cons, kōɴs
Conselve, kōn-sĕl′vä
Constanta (*or* Kustendje), kōn-stän′tsa
Corbais, kōr′bĕ′
Corbeek Loo, kōr′bāk lō
Corbion, kōr′byōɴ′
Corceuil, kōr′sū′y′
Corcieux, kōr′syū′
Corcy, kōr′sē′
Cornieville, kōr′nē′vĕl′
Cornimont, kōr′nē′mōɴ′
Corravillers, kō′ra′vē′lär′
Cortemarck, kōr′tē-märk
Cortessem, kōr′tĕs-ĕm
Cortina, kōr-tē′nä
Coucy, kōō′sē′
Coucy-le-Château, kōō′sē′-lē-shä′tō′
Coulommiers, kōō′lō′myā′
Coulonges, kōō′lōɴzh′
Courcelles-Chaussy, kōōr′sĕl′-shō′sē′
Courrières, kōō′ryär′
Courtemont, kōōrt′mōɴ′
Courtrai, kōōr′trĕ′
Court-St.-Étienne, kōōr′-sĕɴ′-tā′tyĕn′
Couvin, kōō′vĕɴ′
Cracow (*or* Krakow), krā′kō
Crajova (*or* Craiova), krä-yō′vä
Craonne, krä′ōn′
Crécy (*or* Cressy), krā′sē′; *Eng.* krĕs′ĭ
Crécy-sur-Serre, krā-sē′-sür′-sār′
Crevic, krĕ′vĕk′
Crimea, krī-mē′ä; krī-mē′ä

Croisilles, krwä′zĕl′
Croismare, krwä′mär′
Crotx, krwä
Crombeke, krōm′bā-kĕ
Crupet, krū′pĕ′
Cuesmes, kwĕm
Cuinchy, kwĭɴ′shĕ
Cul-des-Sarts, kü′-dĕ′-sär′
Custines, küs′tēn′
Cysoing, sĕ′swĭɴ′
Czenstochowa, chĕn′stō-kō′vä
Czernowitz, chĕr′nō-vĭts

Dagny, dä′nyĕ′
Dagonville, dä′gōɴ′vĕl′
Daleiden, dä-lī′dĕn
Dalheim, däl′hīm
Dalstein, däl′shtīn
Damas, dä′mä′
Damascus, dä-mās′kŭs
Damerkirch, dä′mĕr-kĕrĸ
Dammartin, däɴ′mär′tĂɴ′
Damvillers, däɴ′vē′yä′
Daniele, dä-nyā′lā
Danjoutin, däɴ′jōō′tĂɴ′
Danne, dän′nĕ
Danzig (*or* Dantzic), dän′tsĭk
Dardanelles, där′dä-nĕlz′
Darhamps, där′Ăɴ′
Darmont, där′mōɴ′
Dedeagatch (*or* Dedeagach), dĕ-dē′ä gäch′
Deerlyck, dār′lĕk
Delatyn (pass), dĕ-lä′tĭn
Delle, dĕl
Delme, dĕl′mĕ
Denain, dĕ-nĂɴ′
Dendermonde (*or* Termonde), dĕn′dĕr mōn′dĕ
Dergneau, dĕr′nyō′
Desvres, dā′vr′
Diarbekr (*or* Diarbekir), dē-är′bĕk′′r
Dickebusch, dĭk′ĕ-bŭs
Diedenhofen (*or* Thionville), dē′dĕn-hō′fĕn
Dieulouard, dyū′lōō′är′
Dieuze, dyūz
Differdingen, dĭf′ĕr-dĭng′ĕn
Dignano, dē-nyä′nō
Dijon, dē′zhōɴ′
Dinant, dē′nĂɴ′
Dippach, dĭp′äĸ
Dixmuda, dĕks′mūd′; dē′mūd′
Dnieper (river), nē′pĕr
Dniester (river), nĕs′tĕr
Dolleren, dōl′ĕr-ĕn
Dombasle, dōɴ′bäl′
Dommartin, dōɴ′mär′tĂɴ′
Dommary, dōɴ′mä′rē′
Dompaire, dōɴ′pär′
Don, dōɴ
Donocourt, dōɴ′kōōr′
Dongelberg, dŏng′zl-bĕrĸ
Donjoutin, dōɴ′jōō′tĂɴ′
Dormans, dōr′mĂɴ′
Dornach, dōr′nĭĸ
Douai (*or* Douay), dōō′ē′
Doullens, dōō′lĕɴ′
Drave (river), drĭ′vĕ
Drohobycz, drō-hō′bĭch
Drouville, drōō′vĕl′
Duhno, dōōb′nō
Dukla, dōōk′lä
Dunkirk, dŭn-kûrk′
Duraxzo, dōō-rĭt′sō
Durbuy, dür′boi′
Düren, dü′rĕn

Eberstein, ā′bĕr-shtīn
Ebersweiler, ā′bĕrs-vī′lĕr
Ebly, ā′blē′
Echternach, ĕĸ′tĕr-nĭĸ
Ecly, ĕ′klē′
Écoivres, ā′kwä′vr′
Écoussines, ā′kōō′zēn′
Écouviez, ā′kōō′vyā′
Edesheim, ā′dē-gĕm
Edingen, ā′dĭng-ĕn

Eecke, ā′kĕ
Eecloo, ā-klō′
Eessen, ā′sĕn
Eglingen, ĕg′lĭng-ĕn
El Kuds (*or* Jerusalem), ĕl kōōds
Ellenelles, ĕl′nĕl′
Ellenburg, ĕl′zĕn-bōrĸ
Elouges, ā′lōōzh′
Eloyes, ā′lwä′
Elverdinghe, ĕl′vĕr-dĭng′ĕ
Embken, ĕmp′kĕn
Enghien, äɴ′gĭäɴ′
Enos, ā′nōs
Entroeungt, äɴ′trō′ŭɴ′
Épernay, ā′pĕr′nĕ′
Épinal, ā′pē′nal′
Epirus, ĕ-pī′rŭs
Eppe Sauvage, ĕp′ sō′väzh′
Erdorf, ĕr′dōrf
Eregli, ĕr′ĕ-glē′
Erivan, ĕr′ĕ-vän′
Ermeton, ĕr′mĕ-tōɴ′
Ernouville, ĕr′nū′vĕl′
Ernonheld, ĕr′nōn-hĕld
Erpent, ĕr′pĂɴ′
Erpion, ĕr′pyōɴ′
Erpoin, ĕr′pwĭɴ′
Erquelinnes, ĕrk′lēn′
Errouville, ĕr′ōō′vĕl′
Ertvelde, ĕrt′vĕl-dĕ
Ervilliers, ĕr′vē′yā′
Erzingan, ĕr′zĭn-gän′
Erzerum, ĕrz-rōōm′
Escandain, ĕs′kō′dĂɴ′
Esch, ĕsh
Eschweiler, ĕsh′vī-lĕr
Esnes, ān
Esneux, ĕs′nū′
Espierres, ĕs′pyār′
Esquehéries, ĕs′kĕ-rē′
Essey, ĕs′ē′
Estaires, ĕs-tār′
Esti, ĕs′tē
Estinnes, ĕs′tĭn′
Estre Blanche, ĕs′tr′-blĂɴsh′
Étain, ā′tĭäɴ′
Étalle, ā′tal′
Étival, ā′tē′vāl′
Ettelbruck, ĕt′ĕl-brŏk
Étueffont, ā′tüf′fōɴ′
Eulmont, ūl′mōɴ′
Eupen, oi′pĕn
Euphrates (river), ū-frā′tēz
Everbecq, ĕv′ĕr′bĕk′
Evergem, ā′vĕr-gĕm
Évette, ā′vĕt′
Eydtkuhnen, īt-kōō′nĕn
Eynatten, ī-nät′ĕn
Eyne, ī′nē
Eysden, īs′dĕn

Falaen, fä′län′
Falisolle, fä′lē′sōl′
Falmagne, fäl′män′y′
Famars, fä′mär′
Famillaveux, fä′mē′lä′vū′
Farschweiler, färsh′vī-lĕr
Faulx, fō
Fauvillers, fō′vē′lär′
Fays Dillot, fē′bē′yō′
Feignies, fē′nyē′
Feltre, fĕl′trā
Feluy, fē-loi′
Fépin, fā′pĂɴ′
Père, La, là′ fār′
Père-Champenoise, fār′-shĂɴ′pē-nwäz′
Père-en-Tardenois, fār′-äɴ′-tärd′nwä′
Ferrière, fē′ryär′
Ferté-Gaucher, La, là′ fĕr′tā′-gō′shā′
Ferté-sous-Jouarre, La, là′ fĕr′tā′-sōō′-zhōō′är′
Fianona, fyä-nō′nä
Filsdorf, fĭls′dōrf
Finnevaux, fĭn′vō′
Fins, fĭns
Fisme, fyōō′mĕ

Flawinne, flä′vĭn′
Fleurbaix, flûr′bĕ′
Fleury, flû′rĕ′
Fleville, flĕ′vĕl′
Fligneux, flĕ′nyû′
Flines, flĕn
Flirey, flĕ′rĕ′
Flobecq, flô′bĕk′
Florennes, flô′rĕn′
Florenville, flô′rĕn′vĕl′
Florée, flô′rā′
Fontaine, fôn′tĕn′
Fontenay, fôn′nĕ′
Fontenoy, fôn′nwä′
Fontoy, fôn′twä′
Fonzaso, fôn-tsä′zō
Forrières, fô′ryâr′
Fosse, fôs
Fouchy, fôô′shē′
Foucoqney, fôô′kôn′yĕ′
Foug, fôô
Fougerolles, fôôzh′rôl′
Fourmies, fôôr′mē′
Foville, fô′vēl′
Fraire, frâr
Fraise, frâz
Fraize, frâz
Framières, frà′myâr′
Framont, frà′môn′
Frécourt, frā′kôôr′
Freisdorf, frīz′dôrf
Fresne, frĕn
Fresnes-en-Woëvre, frĕn′-ăn′-vô′ĕv′r′
Fresnoy, frĕ′nwä′
Fretin, frĕ-tăn′
Freudenburg, froi′dĕn-bôôrk
Freux, frû
Prévent, frā′văn′
Prévillers, frā′vē′lâr′
Fribourg, frē′bôôrk
Fricourt, frē′kôôr′
Friesach, frē′zăk
Frisang, frē′zăn′
Froidchapelle, frwä′shà′pĕl′
Fromelles, frô′mĕl′
Fromard, frôô′lär′
Fumay, fü′mĕ′
Furnaux, für′nô′
Furnes, fürn

Gaesbeek, gäz′bāk
Gail (river), gāl
Galatz, gä′läts
Galicia, gō-lĭsh′ĭ-ă
Gallaix, gà′lĕ′
Gallipoli, gäl-lē′pō-lē
Gammerages, gàm′räzh′
Gand (*or* Ghent), gän
Gargnano, gär-nyä′nō
Gavis, gä′lĭs
Gavrelle, gà′vrĕl′
Gaza (*or* Ghazzeh), gā′zà
Geet Betz, gāt bĕts
Gelinden, gĕl′ĭn-dĕn
Gelucourt, gā′lōō-kôôrt
Gembloux, zhän′blōō′
Gemona, jā-mō′nä
Gémonville, zhā′môn′vĕl′
Gemund, gä′môônt
Genappe, zhē-näp′
Gérardmer, zhā′rär′mā′
Gerbepal, zhĕrb′pāl′
Gerbeviller, zhĕrb′vē′yā′
Gérouville, zhā′rōō′vēl′
Gesponsart, zhē′pôn′sär′
Ghazzeh (*or* Gaza), gŭz′ĕ
Ghent (*or* Gand), gĕnt
Ghistelles, gē′stĕl′
Ghyvelde, gē-vĕl′dĕ
Gibecq, zhē′bĕk′
Gildweiler, gĭlt′vī-lĕr
Girecourt, zhĕr′kôôr′
Giromagny, zhē′rô′mà′nyē′
Gironville, zhē′rôn′vēl′
Givenchy, zhē′văn′shē′
Givet, zhē′vĕ′
Givry, zhē′vrē′
Gladbeek, glät′bāk
Gleiwitz, glī′vĭts
Glimes, glĕm
Gloss, glôs
Gmünd, g′münt
Gneesen, g′nā′zĕn
Godarville, gô′dàr′vēl′
Gognoy, gô′nyĕ′
Golbey, gôl′bĕ′
Gondrecourt, gôn′dr′-kôôr′
Gondreville, gôn′dr′-vēl′
Gorcy, gôr′sē′
Gorizia (*or* Görz), gô-rĭt′sē ä
Gorgue, La, là′ gôrg′
Görz (*or* Gorizia), gûrts
Gosselies, gôs′lē′
Gouvy, gôô′vē′
Gouy, gwē
Gradisca, grä-dēs′kä
Grado, grä′dō
Graide, grād
Graincourt, grăn′kôôr′
Grammont, grà′môn′
Grandfontaine, grän′fôn′tĕn′
Grand Pré, grän′ prā′
Grandvoir, grän′vwä′
Granges, grănzh
Graty, grà′tē′
Gravelines, grăv′lēn′
Gravelotte, grăv′lôt′
Grembergen, grĕm′bĕr-gĕn
Grenay, grē′nĕ′
Greux, grû
Grevenmacher, grā′vĕn-măx′ĕr
Grimmée, grĭm′mā′
Gruchten, grôôx′tĕn
Grupont, grü′pôn′
Guebiange, güb′läng-ē
Guebwiller, güb′vĭ-lĕr
Guentrange, gün′tràng-ĕn
Guewenheim, gü′vĕn-hĭm
Guiscard, gē′kär′
Guise, güēz′
Gulpen, gôôl′pĕn
Gumbinnen, gôôm-bĭn′ĕn
Gundolsheim, gôôn′dôlz-hĭm
Gussainville, gü′zăn′vēl′

Habay-la-Vieille, à′bĕ′-là′-vē′ä′y′
Hablainville, à′blăn′vēl′
Habonville, à′bôn′vēl′
Hachy, à′shē′
Hadol, à′dô′
Hadonville, à′dôn′vēl′
Hacht, häxt
Haesdonck, häs′dôŋk
Hal, häl
Haliaer, hàl-lär′
Hallainville, à′lăn′vēl′
Halling, häl′ĭng
Halma, häl′mä
Halsdorf, häls′dôrf
Hamah, hä′mä
Hamme, hăm′ē
Hamoir, à′mwä′
Hamonville, àm′ôn′vēl′
Han, hän
Hannapes, à′näp′
Hanret, än′rā′
Haraucourt, à′rô′kôôr′
Hardigny, ar′dē′nyē′
Hargicourt, ar′zhē′kôôr′
Hargnies, ar′nyē′
Harlebeke, här′lē-bā′kē
Harmignies, ar′mē′nyē′
Harnes, ĭrn
Harre, ĭr
Harville, ar′vēl′
Hary, à′rē′
Hasnon, às′nôn′
Haspres, às′pr′
Hastière, às′tyâr′
Hatrize, à′trēz′
Haubourdine, ô′bôôr′dēn′
Haudemont, ôd′môn′
Haussy, ô′sē′
Hautekin, ô′shăn′
Haut Fays, ô′ fē′
Hautmont, ô′môn′
Havanges, hä′läng-ĕn
Havay, à′vē′
Havre (*Fr.* Le Havre), hä′vĕr; *Fr.* lē àv′r′
Hayange (*or* Hayingen), à′yănzh′
Hayingen (*or* Hayange), hī′ĭng-ĕn
Hazebrouck, às′brôôk′
Heer, hār
Heiderscheid, hī′dĕr-shēt
Heimbach, hīm′bäx
Heimsbrunn, hīmz′brôôn
Heinerscheid, hī′nĕr-shēt
Hélène, ā′lĕn′
Helgoland (*or* Heligoland), hĕl′gō-lănt
Hellebeeg, hĕl′ĕ-bāx
Hellemmes, ĕl′ĕm′
Hem, ăn
Hénin, ā′nĭn′
Hennemont, ĕn′môn′
Henripont, än′rē′pôn′
Herbesthal, hĕr′bĕz-täl
Herbeumont, ĕr′bû′môn′
Herbeviller, ĕrb′vē′lā′
Herchies, ĕr′shē′
Herent, hā′rĕnt
Herenthals, hā′rĕn-täls
Herenthout, hā′rĕnt-out
Hergarlen, hĕr′gär-lĕn
Hergenrath, hĕr′gĕn-rät
Hergnies, ĕr′nyē′
Héricourt, ā′rē′kôôr′
Héristal (*or* Herstal), ā′rē′stàl′
Hermies, ĕr′mē′
Herrines, ĕ′rēn′
Herseux, ĕr′sû′
Hersin, ĕr′săn′
Herstal (*or* Héristal), hĕr′stäl
Herzegovina, hĕr′tsĕ-gô-vē′nä
Herzheim, hĕrts′hīm
Hesdin, ĕs′dăn′
Hestrud, ĕs′trü′
Heuchin, û′shăn′
Heudicourt, û′dē′kôôr′
Heusweiler, hoiz′vī-lĕr
Heusy, û′sē′
Héverlé, ā′vĕr′lā′
Heyst, hīst
Hinckange, hĕn′käng-ē
Hinges, ăn′zh
Hirson, ĕr′sôn′
Hives, ĕv
Hody, ô′dē′
Hofen, hō′fĕn
Hoffeld, hō′fĕlt
Hogne, ôn′y′
Hollebeke, hôl′ē-bā′kĕ
Hollenthal, hôl′ĕn-täl
Hollerich, hō′lĕr-ĭx
Holluin, ô′lwăn′
Holsbeek, hôlz′bāk
Hombeek, hôm′bāk
Homécourt, ô′mā′kôôr′
Hompre, ôn′pr′
Hon, ôn
Hondschoote, hônd′shō-tē
Hooglede, hō′glā-dē
Horodenka, hô′rô-dĕŋ′kä
Horpmael, hôrp′mäl
Houdain, ôô′dăn′
Houdremont, ou′dr′-môn′
Houplines, ôôp′lēn′
Houx, ôô
Houyet, ôô′yĕ′
Huiron, wē′rôn′
Huldenberg, hôôl′dĕn-bĕrx
Huppaye, ü′pā′
Huy, hoi

Ichteghem, Ix′tĕ-gĕm
Iddergem, Id′ĕr-gĕm
Idria, ē′drē-ä
Igny, ē′nyē′
Illanges, ēl′ĭng-ĕn
Illy, ē′yē′
Incourt, ăn′kôôr′
Inden, ĭn′dĕn
Ingelmunster, Iŋ′gĭl-mün′stĕr
Ire, ēr
Izeghem, Iz′ĕ-gĕm
Iskanderun (*or* Alexandretta), Is-kăn′-dĕr-ôôn

Ismailia, ēs′má-ēl′yà
Itegem, ĭt′ē-gĕm
Itterbeek, ĭt′ĕr-bāk
Ittre, ē′tr
Ivangorod, ē-vĭn′gŏ-rŏt
Izel, ē′zĕl
Izier, ē′zyē′

Jabbeke, yàb′ĭ-kē
Jallet, zhà′lĕ′
Jamagne, zhà′mĭn′y′
Jamboli (*or* Yamboli), yàm′bô-lē
Jametz, zhà′mĕs′
Jamoignes, zhà′mwĭn′y′
Jarny, zhàr′nē′
Jaroslaw (*or* Jaroslau), yà-rŏs′láf
Jarville, zhàr′vĕl′
Jassy (*or* Yassy), yĭs′ē
Jaulny, zhōl′nē′
Jeandelize, zhĭn′dē-lēz′
Jeantes, zhĭnt
Jedda (*or* Jidda), jĕd′à
Jehay, zhē-ē′
Jemappe, zhē-màp′
Jemlain, zhĭn′lĭn′
Jerusalem (*or* El Kuds), jē-rōō′sà-lĕm
Jeumont, zhū′mōn′
Jidda (*or* Jedda), jĭd′à
Jodoigne, zhō′dwăn′y′
Jouf, zhū′lĭf′
Joncherey, zhôn′shē-rē′
Jonville, zhôn′vĕl′
Jouarre, zhōō′lr′
Jungingster, yōōng′lĭn-stĕr
Juniville, zhū′nē′vĕl′
Juprelle, zhū′prĕl′
Jurbise, zhür′bēz′
Juseret, zhū′zē-rē′
Juvigny, zhū′vē′nyē′
Juville, zhū′vĕl′

Kain, kĭn
Kaisarieh (*or* Kaisariyeh *or* Caesarea), kĭ′sà-rē′yē
Kaiserberg, kĭ′zĕrs-bĕrĸ
Kalisz, kĭ′lyĕsh
Kall, kĭl
Karahissar, kà-rà′hĭs-sär′
Kattecherberg, kĭt′ē-chĕr-bĕrĸ′
Kattenhofen, kĭt′ĕn-hō′fĕn
Kedange, kĭ′dăng-ē
Keltsy (*or* Kielce), kyĕl′tsĭ
Kelz, kĕlts
Kemmel, kĕm′ĕl
Kemplich, kĕmp′lĭĸ
Kerbela, kĕr′bē-là
Kerling, kĕr′lĭng
Kessel, kĕs′ĕl
Keyem, kī′ĕm
Kholm, kôlm
Khotin, kô′tyĕn
Kief (*or* Kiev), kē′yĕf
Kielce (*or* Keltsy), kyĕl′tsē
Kishinef (*or* Kishinev), kē-shē-nyĕf′
Klagenfurt, klā′gĕn-fōōrt
Klausen, klou′zĕn
Kleinhau, klīn′hou
Koehlberg, kōō′kĕl-bĕrĸ
Kohlscheid, kōl′shīt
Kolomea, kô′lô-mā′ĭ
Kommern, kôm′ĕrn
Königsberg, kū′nĭgs-bĕrĸ
Kovel, kô′vĕl-y′
Kragujevatz (*or* Kraguyevatz), krà-gōō′yĕ-vàts
Krainberg, krīn′bĕrĸ
Krakow (*or* Cracow), krā′kō
Krath, krät
Krautscheid, krout′shīt
Krementchug (*or* Krementchug), krĕm′-ĕn-chōōk′
Kremnitz, krĕm′nĭts
Kreuzau, kroi′tsou
Kronenberg, krō′nĕn-bĕrĸ
Kuds, El (*or* Jerusalem), ĕl kōōds
Kur (*or* Kura, river), kōōr ; kōō′rà
Kurischen Haff, kōō′rĭsh-ĕn hĭf
Kustendje (*or* Constanța), klis-tĕn′jē
Kut-el-Amara, kōōt′ĕl-ä-mä′rà

La Bassée, là′ bà′sā′
La Capelle, là′ kà′pĕl′
La Chapelle, là′ shà′pĕl′
Ladeuze, là′dūz′
La Père, là′ fâr′
La Père-Champenoise, là′ fâr′-shĭn′-pē-nwăz′
La Ferté-Gaucher, là′ fĕr′tā′-gō′shā′
La Ferté-sous-Jouarre, là′ fĕr′tā′-sōō′-zhōō′lr′
Lagarde, là′gärd′
Lagny, là′n′y′
La Gorgue, là′ gôrg′
Laibach, lī′bĭĸ
Laires, lâr
Laison, lā′zôn′
Laix, lā
La Laterne, là′ là′tĕrn′
Lamarche, là′märsh′
Lamorteau, là′môr′tō′
Landrecies, lĭn′drā′sē′
Landres, lĭn′dr′
Lanelle, là′nĕl′
Langemarck, lĭŋ′gĕ-märk′
Langres, lĭn′gr′
Languion, lĭn′gē′ôn′
Lannoy, là′nwä′
Laon, lăn
La Panne, là′ pän′
La Pinte, là′ pĭnt′
La Roche, là′ rôsh′
Latakia, lă′tă-kē′ă
Latisana, lă′tē-sä′nä
La Trouche, là′ trōōsh′
Laumesfeld, lou′mĕz-fĕlt
Lautenbach Zell, lou′tĕn-bĭĸ tsĕl′
Laveline, lăv′lēn′
Laventie, là′vĭn′tē′
Lavoir, là′vwä′
La Voivre, là′ vwä′vr′
Lebbeke, lĕ-bā′kĕ
Le Cateau, lē kà′tō′
Ledeberg, lā′dē-bĕrĸ
Ledeghem, lā′dē-gĕm
Leeuw, lā′ōō
Legnago, lā-nyä′gō
Le Havre, lē ăv′r′
Leidenborn, lī′dĕn-bôrn
Le Mans, lē măn′
Lembecq, lăn′bĕk′
Lemberg (*or* Lwów), lĕmbĕrĸ
Lendmare, lănd-mä′rĭ
Lens, lănz
Levico, lā′vē-kō
Le Quesnoy, lē kā′nwä′
Liancourt, lē′ăn′kōōr′
Liart, lē′är′
Libau, lē′bou
Lichtenborn, lĭĸ′tĕn-bôrn
Lichtervelde, lĭk′tĕr-vĕl′dē
Liederkerke, lē′dĕr-kĕr′kē
Liége, lē′ĕzh′
Lienz, lē-ĕnts′
Lierneux, lē′ĕr-nū′
Lierre, lē′är′
Lieusies, lē′ēs′ē′
Ligne, lēn′y′
Ligneville, lēn′y′-vĕl′
Ligny, lē′nyē′
Ligny-en-Barrois, lē′nyē′-ăn′-bà′rwä′
Lille (*or* Lisle), lēl
Lillers, lē′lā′r′
Limburg, lĭm′bûrĸ ; *Eng.* lĭm′bûrg
Limey, lē′mē′
Linden, lĭn′dĕn
Linne, lĭn
Liroanville, lē′rōn′vĕl′
Livenza (river), lē-vĕnt′sä
Liverdun, lē′vĕr′dŭn′
Lixidres, lē′zyār′
Locon, lô′kôn′
Lodz (*or* Lódź), lôdz ; lôj
Lommer, lôm′ĕr
Lommerzweiler, lôm′ĕrz-vī′lĕr
Lompres, lôn′prē′
Lomza (*or* Lomzha), lôm′shà
Longarone, lôŋ′gā-rō′nā
Longchamps, lôn′shăn′
Longeville, lôn′zh′vĕl′

Longlier, lôn′lyā′
Longvilly, lôn′vē′yē′
Longwy, lôn′vē′
Lonny, lô′nē′
Loo, lō
Loos, lō-ōs′
Lophem, lō′pĕm
Lorentzweiler, lō′rĕnts-vī′lĕr
Lorraine (*or* Lothringen), lô-rān′
Lorry, lô′rē′
Louheim, lōs′hĭm
Lothringen (*or* Lorraine), lōt′rĭng-ĕn
Lotzen, lōt′sĕn
Louette St. Denis, lōō′ĕt′ sĭn′ dē-nē′
Louette St. Pierre, lōō′ĕt′ sĭn′ pyār′
Lougres, lōō′gr′
Louvaigne, lōō′vĕn′y′
Louvain, lōō′vĭn′
Louvignies, lōō′vē′nyē′
Lubey, lü′bē′
Lublin (*or* Lyublin), lyōō′blyĕn
Luchoux, lü′shû′
Lucy, lü′sē′
Lünebach, lü′nē-bäx
Lunéville, lü′nā′vēl′
Lure, lür
Lussin, lōōs-zēn′
Luttange, lōōt′ăng-ē
Lutterbach, lōōt′ĕr-bäx
Luttre, lü′tr′
Lutsk (*or* Lutsk), lōōtsk
Luxembourg, lük′sĭn′bōōr′
Luxemburg, lük′sĕm-bûrg ; *Ger.* lōōks′-ĕm-bōōrx

Lwów (*or* Lemberg), lvōōf
Lys (river), lēs

Machecourt, mäsh′kōōr′
Macon, mā′kôn′
Maoquenoise, mák′nwäz′
Magneux, mà′nyû′
Magnières, mà′nyār′
Magny, mà′nyē′
Mainville, măn′vĕl′
Mainz (*or* Mayence), mīnts
Mährisch-Ostrau, mā′rĭsh-ôs′trou
Maisiers, mā′zyār′
Maisons-Alfort, mā′zôn′-zăl′fôr′
Maizeray, māz′rē′
Maizy, mā′zē′
Malamocco, mà′lă-môk′kō
Malatia, mà′là-tē′à
Maldegem, măl′dē-gĕm′
Malines (*or* Mechlin), mà′lēn′
Malo-les-Bains, mà′lō′-lā′-bĭn′
Malroy, mál′rwä′
Malvaux, mál′vō′
Maiseville, māz′vēl′
Mamers, mà′mār′
Manage, mà′năzh′
Mance, mĭns
Manicamp, mà′nē′kĭn′
Manneren, mán′ē-rĕn
Manonvillers, mà′nôn′vē′lār′
Mans, Le, lē măn′
Mantova (*or* Mantua), măn′tō-vä
Mantua (*or* Mantova), măn′tū-à
Marainville, mà′rĭn′vē′yē′
Marbache, mär′bäsh′
Marche, märsh
Marchiennes, mär′shyĕn′
Marchin, mär′shĭn′
Marcinelle, mär′sē′nĕl′
Marck, märk
Marcoing, mär′kwĭn′
Marcq, märk
Maresme, mà′rĕn′
Maretz, mà′rĕs′
Margival, mär′zhē′väl′
Mariakerke, mà-rē′à-kĕr′kē
Maricourt, mà′rē′kōōr′
Mariemburg, mā-rē′ĕm-bōōrx
Marieux, mà′ryû′
Markirch, mär′kĭrx
Marlement, mär′mûn′
Marles, märl
Marloie, mär′lwä′
Marly, mär′lē′
Marolles, mà′rwä′y′

Maron, mȧ′rôn′
Marquin, mȧr′kĭn′
Marsal, mȧr′zȧl
Marseille (*or* Marseilles), mȧr′sȧ′y′
Marseilles, mȧr-sālz′
Mars-la-Tour, mȧrs′-lȧ′-tōōr′
Martincourt, mȧr′tĭn′kōōr′
Marville, mȧr′vēl′
Masseman, mȧs′ē-mĕn
Masseges, mȧ′sĕzh′
Manbert-Fontaine, mô′bâr′-fôn′tĕn′
Maubeuge, mô′bûzh′
Maulde, môld
Mazenchamp, mȧ′zăn′shăn′
Mayence (*or* Mainz), mȧ′yĭns′
Mazée, mȧ′zā′
Meaux, mō
Mecca (*or* **Mekka**), mĕk′ȧ
Mechlin (*or* Malines), mĕk′lĭn
Medernach, mā′dĕr-năk
Medina, mȧ-dē′nä
Meerssen, mār′sĕn
Mekka (*or* Mecca), mĕk′ȧ
Melle, mĕl
Mellier, mĕl′yā′
Melreux, mĕl′rû′
Melun, mĕ-lûn′
Membruggen, mĕm′brŏŏg-ĕn
Menin, mĕ-năn′
Menil, mĕ-nēl′
Menil-la-Tour, mĕ-nēl′-lȧ′-tōōr′
Merbecque, mĕr′bĕk′
Merbes, mĕrb
Merchtem, mĕrĸ′tĕm
Mercken, mĕr′kĕn
Mercy-le-Bas, mĕr′sē′-lē-bä′
Mercy-le-Haut, mĕr′sē′-lē-ō′
Merlemont, mĕrl′môn′
Mersch, mĕrsh
Merval, mĕr′vȧl′
Merville, mĕr′vēl′
Messancy, mĕ-săn′sē′
Messein, mĕ-săn′
Messines, mĕ-sēn′
Mestre, mĕs′trȧ
Métaires, mȧ′târ′
Metnitz, mĕt′nĭts
Metrich, mĕt′rĭĸ
Mettecoven, mĕt′ē-kō′fĕn
Metz, mĕts; *Fr.* mĕs
Metzeral, mĕt′sē-rȧl
Metzerwiese, mĕt′sĕr-vē′zĕ
Meulebeke, mû′lē-bā′kē
Meuse (river), mûz; *Eng.* mūz
Mézières, mā′zyâr′
Mirwart, mēr′värt
Mitrovicza (*or* Mitrovitz), mē′trō-vĕt′sȧ
Moerbeke, mōōr′bā-kē
Moerkerke, mōōr′kĕr-kē
Moere, mōō′rē
Moggio, mōd′jō
Mohammera, mō′hȧ-mā′rä
Mohiville, mō′ē′vēl′
Mohon, mō′ôn′
Moircy, mwär′sē′
Moldava (river), môl-dä′vä
Molhain, mō′lăn′
Monastir, mŏn′ȧs-tēr′
Monceau, môn′kō′
Moncel, môn′sĕl′
Monchy, môn′shē′
Mondelange, môn′dē-lȧng′ē
Monfalcone, môn′fäl-kō′nä
Mons, mônz
Mons-en-Pévèle, môn′-zăn′-pā′vāl′
Mont, môn
Montagnana, môn′tä-nyä′nä
Montbéliard, môn′bā′lyär′
Montdidier, môn′dē′dyā′
Montfaucon, môn′fō′kôn′
Montherme, môn′tĕrm′
Monthureux, môn′tü′rû′
Montigny, môn′tē′nyē′
Montjoie, môn′jwä′
Montmédy, môn′mā′dē′
Montmirail, môn′mē′rā′y′
Montoise, môn′twäz′
Montreau Vieux, môn′trō′vyû′
Mont-St.-Amand, môn′-săn′-tȧ′măn′
Mont-St.-Aubert, môn′-săn′-tō′bâr′
Mont-St.-Éloy, môn′-săn′-tā′lwȧ′
Mont-St.-Jean, môn′-săn′-zhăn′
Mont-St.-Martin, môn′-săn′-mȧr′tĭn′
Mont-St.-Pierre môn′-săn′-pyâr′
Mont-St.-Rémy, môn′-săn′-rā′mē′
Montsec, môn′sĕk′
Moorslede, mōrs′lā-dē
Moreuil, mō′rû′y′
Morey, mō′rē′
Moriville, mō′rē′vēl′
Morville, môr′vēl′
Mosul, mō′sōōl′
Mouaville, mōō′ȧ′vēl′
Mouchin, mōō′shăn′
Moulbaix, mōōl′bā′
Moulins, mōō′lĭn′
Mouscron, mōōs′krôn′
Moustier, mōōs′tyā′
Mouvaux, mōō′vō′
Mouzay, mōō′zā′
Moyen, mwȧ′yăn′
Moyenmoutier, mwȧ′yăn′mōō′tyā′
Moyenneville, mwȧ′yĕn′vēl′
Mozet, mō′zĕ′
Muggia, mōōd′jä
Mülhausen, mül′hou′zĕn
Münster, mün′stēr
Murville, mür′vēl′
Mush, mōōsh
Musson, mü′zôn′
Muysen, moi′sĕn
Muzeray, mü′zĕ-rē′

Nadrin, nȧ′drăn′
Nakhitchevan, nȧ′kĕ-chĕ-văn′
Nampteuil, năn′tû′y′
Namur, nȧ′mür′
Nancy, năn′sē′; *Eng.* năn′sĭ
Nandrin, năn′drăn′
Narew (*or* Narev, river), nä′rĕf
Nassogne, nȧ′sôn′y′
Nazareth, (Belgium) nȧ′zȧ′rĕt′
Nennig, nĕn′ĭĸ
Nesle, nāl
Neubois, nû′bwä′
Neuenburg, noi′ĕn-bōōrĸ
Neufchâteau, nû′shä′tō′
Neufchatel, nû′shȧ′tĕl′
Neufchef, nû′shĕf′
Neuilly-sur-Marne, nû′yē′-sür′-mȧrn′
Neumarkt, noi′mȧrkt
Neutitschein, noi′tĭt′shīn
Neuve Chapelle, nûv′ shȧ′pĕl′
Neuve Église, nûv′ ā′glēz′
Neuve Maison, nûv′ mā′zôn′
Neuves Maisons, nûv mā′zôn′
Neuville, nû′vēl′
Neuweiler, noi′vī-lēr
Niekirchen, nē′kĕr′kĕn
Niel, nēl
Nieuport, nē′ōō-pôrt
Nikolaief (*or* Nikolayev), nyē′kô-lä′yĕf
Nîmes (*or* Nismes), nēm
Ninove, nē′nôv′
Nivelles, nē′vēl′
Nives, nēv
Noerdange, nōōr′dȧng-ē
Noirefontaine, nwär′fôn′tĕn′
Noirval, nwär′vȧl′
Noisy-le-Sec, nwä′zē′-lē-sĕk′
Noreuil, nô′rû′y′
Norroy-le-Sec, nô′rwä′-lē-sĕk′
Norvenich, nōr′fē-nĭĸ
Nouzon, nōō′zôn′
Noville, nô′vēl′
Novogeorgievsk, nô′vô-gē-ôr′gē-yĕfsk
Noyelle, nwä′yĕl′
Noyen, nwä′yăn′

Obaix, ô′bā′
Oberbruck, ō′bĕr-brŏŏĸ
Obersgegen, ō′bĕrz-gā′gĕn
Ober-Weiler, ō′bĕr-vī′lĕr
Ober-Weiss, ō′bĕr-vīs′
Occoches, ô′kôsh′
Ochamps, ô′shăn′
Octringen, ŏk′trĭng′ĕn
Oderen, ō′dē-rĕn
Oderzo, ô-dĕrt′sō
Oedelem, ōō′dē-lĕm
Offey, ô′fē′
Ogeviller, ôzh′vē′yā′
Ogy, ô′zhē′
Ohain, ô′ăn′
Ohey, ô′ē′
Oignies, wȧ′nyē′
Oise (river), wäz
Oisy, wȧ′zē′
Ollignies, ô′lē′nyē′
Olloy, ô′lwä′
Olmütz, ôl′müts
Olzheim, ōlts′hīm
Omicourt, ô′mē′kōōr′
Onnaing, ô′năn′
Oombergen, ōm′bĕr-gĕn
Oostacker, ōst′äk′ĕr
Oostcamp, ōst′kämp′
Oostkerke, ōst′kĕr-kē
Opont, ô′pôn′
Oppy, ô′pē′
Orbey, ôr′bā′
Orchies, ôr′shē′
Orchimont, ôr′shē′môn′
Orcq, ôrk
Origny, ô′rē′nyē′
Ornel, ôr′nēl′
Orsay, ôr′sē′
Orsera, ôr-sā′rä
Orval, ôr′vȧl′
Ossero, ôs-sā′rō
Ostiglia, ôs-tēl′yä
Ostrog, ŏs-trôĸ′
Ostrow, ŏs′trôf
Ottendorf, ŏt′ĕn-dôrf
Ottignies, ô′tē′nyē′
Ottingen, ŏt′ĭng-ĕn
Ouchez, ōō′shā′
Oudenarde (*or* **Audenarde**), ou′dē-när′dē
Oudler, ōōd′lā′
Ouffet, ōō′fā′
Ouire, wēr
Ourcq (river), ōōrk
Ourthe (river), ōōrt

Padova (*or* Padua), pä′dō-vä
Padua (*or* Padova), păd′ū-ȧ
Pagny, pȧ′nyē′
Pagnies, pȧ′nyē′
Pago, pä′gō
Paliseul, pȧ′lē′sûl′
Palmanova, päl′mä-nô′vä
Pange, pȧng′ē
Panne, La, lȧ pȧn′
Pannes, pȧn
Parenzo, pä-rĕnt′sō
Paris, pȧr′ĭs; *Fr.* pȧ′rē′
Parroy, pȧ′rwä′
Pas-de-Calais, pä′-dē-kȧ′lē′
Passchendaele, pȧs′kĕn-dä′lē
Patignies, pȧ′tē′nyē′
Pattingen, pȧt′ĭng-ĕn
Pâturages, pä′tü′rȧzh′
Paxonne, pȧ′zôn′
Pecq, pĕk
Pelingen, pā′lĭng-ĕn
Pellestrina, pĕl′lĕs-trē′nä
Peltre, pĕl′trä
Pepinster, pĕp′ĭn-stēr
Perck, pĕrk
Peremysl (*or* Przemyśl), pĕ-rē′mĭshl-y′; pshĕ′mĭshl-y′
Perl, pĕrl
Pernes, pĕrn
Péronne, pā′rôn′
Perthes, pĕrt
Peschiera, pā-skyā′rä
Petersbach, pā′tĕrz-bäĸ
Petingen, pĕt′ĭng-ĕn
Petit-Croix, pē-tē′-krwä′
Petit-Magny, pē-tē′-mȧ′nyē′
Petitmont, pē-tē′môn′
Petrokov (*or* Piotrków), pyĕ′trō-kôf′
Peuthy, pû′tē′
Peuvillers, pû′vē′lâr′
Pfaffenheim, pfäf′ĕn-hīm
Pfetterhausen, pfĕt′ĕr-hou′zĕn

Philippeville, fē'lēp'vēl'
Philin, fīlīn
Piacenza, pyä-chĕnt'sä
Piave (river), pyä'vā
Picardy, plk'ar-dĭ
Pierrefonds, pyār'fōn'
Pierrepont, pyār'pōn'
Pietro, pyĕ'trō
Pieve di Cadore, pyĕ'vā dē kä-dō'rā
Pilkem, pĭl'kĕn
Pillon, pĕ'yōn'
Pinte, La, lä' pĭnt
Pietrków (or Petrokov), pyōtr'kōōf
Piave, pyō'vā
Pirmez, pĭ-rĕ'ĕs
Pirano, pē-rä'nō
Pittem, pĭt'ĕm
Plaisance, plāz'ĕns'
Plancher-les-Mines, plĭn'shĕ'-lā'-mēn'
Plasschendaele, plās'kĕn-dĭ'lĕ
Plombières, plōn'byār'
Podgórze, pōd-gōō'zhĕ
Poelcapelle, pōōl'kä'pĕl'
Poitiers, pwä'tyĕ'
Polz, pwĭ
Polz-St.-Hubert, pwĭ'-sĭn'-tü'bār'
Pola, pō'lä
Polleur, pō'lūr'
Pont-à-Celles, pōn'-tä'-sĕl'
Pont-à-Marcq, pōn'-tä'-märk'
Pont-à-Mousson, pōn'-tä'-mōō'sōn'
Pontebba, pōn-tĕb'bä
Ponte di Piave, pōn'tä dē pyä'vā
Pontoy, pōn'toi
Pont-Pierre, pōn'-pyār'
Pont-Ste.-Maxence, pōn'-sănt'-mäk'sĭns'
Pont-sur-Sambre, pōn'-sür'-sän'br'
Poperinghe, pō'pĕ-rĭng'
Perdenone, pōr'dā-nō'nā
Portogruaro, pōr'tō-grōō-ä'rō
Portole, pōr'tō-lā
Portore, pōr'tō-rā
Port Said, pōrt sā-ēd'
Potteaux, pō'tō'
Pozidres, pō'zyār'
Predazzo, prā-dät'sō
Pripet, prē'pĕt
Prisrend, prē'zrĕnt
Profondeville, prō'fōnd'vēl'
Promontore (cape), prō'mōn-tō'rā
Pronsfeld, prōns'fĕlt
Proskurof (or Proskurov), prō'skōō-rōf'
Proven, prō'vĕn
Provenchères, prō'vĕn'shār'
Provin, prō'vĕn'
Prum, prōōm
Pruth (river), prōōt
Przemysl, pshĭs'nlsh
Przemyśl (or Peremysl), pshĕ'mlshl-y'
Pulney, pül'nwĭ'
Pultusk, pōōl'tōōsk
Punemange, pün'mĭnzh'
Püttingen, püt'ĭng-ĕn
Puxieux, pü'zyü'

Quarreux, kä'rō'
Quarnero, kwär-nā'rō
Quartes, kärt
Quatre-Bras, kä'tr'-brä'
Queenoy, Le, lĕ kä'nwä'
Quevaucamps, kĕ-vō'kĭn'
Quievrain, kĕ'ĕ-vrĭn
Quievy, kĕ'ĕ-vē'

Raddon, rä'dōn'
Radmannsdorf, räd'mouns-dōrf
Radom, rä'dōm
Radzivilov, räd'zē'vē-lōf'
Raeren, rä'rĕn
Rambervillers, rän'bĕr'vē'lār'
Rambruch, rän'brōōx
Ramecourt, rän'kōōr'
Ramet, rä'mā'
Ramillies, rä'mē'yē'
Ramonchamps, rä'mōn'shän'
Ramont, rä'mōn'
Rance, rĭns
Rancennière, rĭn'kō'ayār'
Rasa, rĭs
Rasa-l'Etape, rĭn'-lā'tap'
Rappoltsweiler, rĭp'ōlts-vī'lĕr
Rastenburg, rĭs'tĕn-bōōrx'
Rancourt, rō'kōōr'
Raulecourt, rōl'kōōr'
Raulseur, rōl'sūr'
Rava (or Rawa), rä'vä
Raves, rāv
Raville, rä'vēl'
Ravnagora, rāv'nä-gō'rä
Rawaruska, rä'vä-rōōs'kä
Rechingen, rĕx'ĭng-ĕn
Recogne, rē'kōn'y'
Redu, rē'dü'
Regnieville, rē'nyē'vēl'
Rehainviller, rā'ĭn'vē'yā'
Rehan, rā'ĭn'
Reichlange, rīx'lang-ĕ
Reims (or Rheims), rēmz; *Fr.* rĭns
Reisdorf, rīz'dōrf
Reisgheim, rīs'ē-gĕm
Remagne, rē-mān'y'
Rémancourt, rā'mō'kōōr'
Remich, rā'mĭx
Remiremont, rē-mēr'mōn'
Rémy, rā'mē'
Renaix, rē-nĕ'
Renland, rān'lānt
Renlies, rān'lē'
Renwez, rān'vā'
Repaix, rē-pĕ'
Restaigne, rēs'tān'y'
Rethel, rē-tĕl'
Reuland, roi'lānt
Revin, rē-vĭn'
Reneaville, rē-nōn'vēl'
Rheims (or Reims), rēmz; *Fr.* rĭns
Ribecourt, rēb'kōōr'
Ribemont, rēb'mōn'
Richterich, rĭx'tĕ-rĭx
Riempst, rēmpst
Riemse, rē'ĕm'
Riga, rē'gä
Rigny, rē'nyē'
Rimbach, rēm'bäx
Rimogne, rē'mōn'y'
Rinnthal, rĭn'tāl
Rivière, rē'vyār'
Robecq, rō'bĕk'
Robechies, rōb'shē'
Robelmont, rō'bĕl'mōn'
Roche, La, lä' rōsh'
Rochefort, rōsh'fōr'
Rochehaut, rōsh'ō'
Rochessen, rōsh'sōn'
Rocilmecourt, rō'klĭn'kōōr'
Recrot, rō'krwä'
Rodemachern, rō'dē-mäx'ĕrn
Roeux, rō'ō'
Roisel, rwä'zĕl'
Roly, rō'lē'
Romhas, rōm'bäs
Roncq, rōnk
Roobers, rō'bārs
Rorbach, rōr'bäx
Ronte, rō'zā'
Rosières, rō'zyār'
Rosières-en-Santerre, rō'zyār'-zän'-zän'tĭr'
Rossart, rō'zär'
Rotgen, rōt'gĕn
Rothen, rō'tōn
Roubaix, rōō'bĕ
Rouen, rwĭn
Rouilach, rōō'lĭx
Roupement, rōōsh'mōn'
Rouhers, rōō'lā'
Roupy, rōō'pē'
Rousbrugge, rous'brōōg-ĕ
Rouves, rōōv
Rouvres, rōō'vr'
Rouvroie, rōōv'rwä'
Rouvroy, rōōv'rwä'
Roux, rōō
Roverbella, rō'vĕr-bā'lä
Roveredo, rō'vā-rā'dō
Rovigno, rō-vē'nyō
Rovigo, rō-vē'gō
Royaumeix, rwä'yō'mā'
Roye, rwä
Rozoy-sur-Serre, rō'zwä'-sür'-sār'
Rozzo, rōd'zō
Ruddervoorde, rüd'ĕr-vōr'dĕ
Rudlin, rüd'lĭn'
Rulles, rül
Rumbeke, rüm'bā-kĕ
Rumes, rüm
Rumigny, rü'mē'nyē'
Rupt, rüp
Russen, rüs'ĕn
Russow, shĕ'shōōf

Saar (river), zār
Saarbrücken, sär'brük'ĕn
Saarburg, zär'bōōrx
Sablon, sä'blōn'
Sachsenburg, säk'sĕn-bōōrx
Saclio, sä-chē'lä
Saied, sä'ĭēd'
Saffelaere, säf'ĕ-lā'rĕ
Saida, sä'ē-dä
Saint, sĭn
Saint-Richmont, sĭn'-rēsh'mōn'
Saint-Amand, sĭn'tä'mān'
Saint-Benoit, sĭn'-bĕ-nwä'
Saint-Blaise, sĭn'-blāz'
Saint-Bresson, sĭn'-brĕ-sōn'
Saint-Cyr, sĭn'-sēr'
Saint-Denis, sĭn'-dē-nē'
Saint-Dié, sĭn'-dyĕ'
Saint-Etienne, sĭn'-tā'tyĕn'
Saintes, sĭnt
Saint-Genest, sĭn'-zhĕ-nĕ'
Saint-Georges, sĭn'-zhōrzh'
Saint-Gérard, sĭn'-zhā'rär'
Saint-Germain, sĭn'-zhĕ'-mĭn'
Saint-Ghislain, sĭn'-gē'lĭn'
Saint-Gilles, sĭn'-zhēl'
Saint-Hilaire, sĭn'-ē'lār'
Saint-Hubert, sĭn'-tü'bār'
Saint-Jean, sĭn'-zhĭn'
Saint-Jean-ten-Noode, sĭn'-zhōn'-tĭn'-nōd'
Saint-Julien, sĭn'-zhü'lyĭn'
Saint-Laurent, sĭn'-lō'rĭn'
Saint-Léger, sĭn'-lā'zhā'
Saint-Léonard, sĭn'-lā'ō'nār'
Saint-Marcel, sĭn'-mär'zĕl'
Sainte-Marguerite, sĭnt'-mär'gĕ-rēt'
Sainte-Marie, sĭnt'-mā'rē'
Saint-Martin, sĭn'-mär'tĭn'
Saint-Maurice, sĭn'-mō'rēs'
Saint-Médard, sĭn'-mā-dār'
Saint-Michel, sĭn'-mē'shĕl'
Saint-Mihiel, sĭn'-mē'yĕl'
Saint-Mihiel, sĭn'-mē'yĕl'
Saint-Nabord, sĭn'-nä'bōr'
Saint-Nicholas, sĭn'-nē'kō'lä'
Saint-Omer, sĭn'-tō'mār'
Saint-Ouen, sĭn'-twĭn'
Saint-Paul, sĭn'-pōl'
Saint-Pierre, sĭn'-pyār'
Saint-Pol, sĭn'-pōl'
Saint-Privat, sĭn'-prē'vä'
Saint-Quentin, sĭn'-kĭn'tĭn'
Saint-Remy, sĭn'-rĕ-mē'
Saint-Simon, sĭn'-sē'mōn'
Saint-Sulpice, sĭn'-sülp'pēs'
Saint-Trond, sĭn'-trōn'
Saint-Vaast, sĭn'-vĕ-zăst'
Sainville, sĭn'-vēl'
Saloux, sä'lō'
Saloniki (or Saloniea), sä'lō-nē'kē
Salvere, säl-vā'rā
Sambre (river), sän'br'
Samarie, sän'rē'
San (river), sän
Sancourt, sän'kōōr'
San Giorgio, sän jōr'jō
Santenil, sän'tē'
San Pietro, sän pyĕ'trō
Sapogne, sä'pōn'y'
Sappois-le-Bas, sä'pwä'-lĕ-bä'
Sappois-le-Haut, sä'pwä'-lĕ-ō'
San Vito, sän vē'tō

Sarajevo (*or* Sarayevo), sä′rä-yā-vô
Sarita, sä-rē′tä
Sart, sär
Sarthe (river), särt
Saulnes, sōn
Saulnot, sō′nō′
Sauvigny, sō′vē′nyē′
Saulxures, sō′lür′
Save (river), säv
Saventhem, sä′vĕn-tĕm
Schaerbeek, sxär′bāk
Scheven, sxā′vĕn
Schiffingen, shĭf′fĭng-ĕn
Schio, skē′ō
Schirmeck, shēr′mĕk
Schleiden, shlī′dĕn
Schmidtheim, shmĭt′hīm
Schoenecken, sxō′nĕk-ĕn
Schöneberg, shû′nĕ-bĕrx
Schooten, sxō′tĕn
Schopp, shôp
Schrierlach, shrēr′läx
Soutari (*or* Skutari), skōō′tä-rē
Seclin, sĕ-klĭn′
Sedan, sĕ-dĭn′
Segelsem, sā′gĕl-sĕm
Selcheprey, sĕsh′prē′
Seine (river), sān
Selbach, zāl′bäx
Seloignes, sē-lwän′y′
Semelle, sē-nĕl′
Senlis, sän′lēs′
Sémon, sā′nôn′
Southeim, zänt′hīm
Seny, sē-nē′
Seraing, sē-rän′
Seres, sā′rĕs
Sereth (river), sā-rĕt′
Serres, sär
Servance, sĕr′vänss′
Servigny, sĕr′vē′nyē′
Seuil, sū′y′
Sevran, sē-vrän′
Sézanne, sā′zän′
Sibret, sē′brā′
Sichen, sĭx′ĕn
Siedlce (*or* Syedlets), shĕl′tsĕ
Sierck, zĕrk
Signy-l'Abbaye, sē′nyē′-lä′bā′
Signy-le-Petit, sē′nyē′-lĕ-pē-tē′
Silsenrieux, sē′länx′ryû′
Sillegny, sē′lē′nyē′
Silly, sē′yē′
Simmerath, zĭm′ĕ-rät
Sin, sän
Sinay, sē′nē′
Sinob (*or* Sinope), sē-nōb′
Sinope (*or* Sinob), sĭ-nō′pē
Sinsin, sän′sän′
Sinspelt, zĕnz′pĕlt
Sirault, sē′rō′
Sivas, sē′väs′
Sivry, sē′vrē′
Skoplje (*or* Üsküp), skôp′lyĕ
Skutari (*or* Scutari), skōō′tä-rē
Sleydinge, slī′dĭŋ-gĕ
Slype, slēp
Smeekerke, smäs′kĕr-kĕ
Sochaux, sō′shō′
Sofia (*or* Sophia), sō′fē-ä; sō-fē′ä
Sohier, sō′ē′ā′
Soignies, swä′nyē′
Soire, swär
Soissons, swä′sōn′
Sokolof (*or* Sokolow), sō′kō-lôf′
Solbach, zōl′bäx
Solesmes, sō′lĕm′
Sologne, sō′lôn′y′
Somain, sō′măn′
Sombrin, sôn′brĭn′
Somergem, sō′mĕr-gĕm
Somme (river, department), sôm
Sommerviller, sō′mĕr′vē′yā′
Sonnée, sōn′zā′
Soppe, sōp′ē
Sorcy, sōr′sē′
Sotenich, zō′tē-nĭx
Sottegem, sōt′ē-gĕm
Souain, sōō′ăn′
Souilly, swē′yē′
Soulosse, sōō′lōs′
Soultzbach, zoults′bäx
Soultzmatt, zoults′măt
Soumagne, sōō′män′y′
Soumay, sōō′mē′
Soupir, sōō′pēr′
Sourbrodt, zour′brōt
Sourvoy, sōōr′vwä′
Spilimbergo, spē′lēm-bĕr′gō
Spincourt, spăn′kōōr′
Spittal, shpĭt′äl
Spy, spē
Staple, stä′pl′
Staufen, shtou′fĕn
Steenbrugge, stān′brōōg′ē
Steenvoorde, stān′vōr-dē
Steige, shtī′gē
Sterrebeek, stĕr′ē-bāk
Stettin, shtē-tēn′
Stosswihr, shtōs′vēr
Stoumont, stōō′môn′
Straimont, strē′môn′
Stralsund, shträl′zōōnt
Stree, strā
Strigno, strē′nyō
Struma (river), strōō′mä
Stryj, strē′y′
Sugny, sü′nyē′
Suippes, swēp
Suwalki, sōō-väl′kē
Sweveghem, swä′vē-gĕm
Swevezeele, swä′vē-zā′lē
Swinemünde, svē′nē-mün′dē
Syedlets (*or* Siedlce), syĕd′lyĕts

Tabriz, tä-brēz′
Tahure, tä′ür′
Taintrux, tăn′trü′
Tarcento, tär-chĕn′tō
Tarcienne, tär′syĕn′
Tarnopol, tär-nō′pōl-y′
Tarnow, tär′nōōf
Tavaux, tā′vō′
Tavigny, tä′vē′nyē′
Tchatalja (*or* Chatalja), chä-täl′yä
Tchernavoda (*or* Cernavoda), chĕr′nä-vō′dä
Tellancourt, tĕ-län′kōōr′
Tellin, tĕ-lăn′
Templeuve, tän′plûv′
Tentre, tän′tr′
Termes, tĕrm
Termonde (*or* Dendermonde), tĕr′mônd′
Ternuay, tĕr′nü′ē′
Thann, tän
Thaon, tän
Thélus, tā′lü′
Thérouanne, tā′rōō′án′
Thézey, tā′zē′
Thiant, tē′ăn′
Thiaucourt, tyô′kōōr′
Thiefosse, tyĕ-fōs′
Thielt, tēlt
Thiene, tyĕ′nā
Thil, tēl
Thillot, tē′yō′
Thionville (*or* Diedenhofen), tyôn′vēl′
Thirimont, tē′rē′môn′
Thourout, tōō′rōō′
Thuin, tü′ĭn′
Tillet, tē′yä′
Tincourt, tăn′kōōr′
Tirlemont, tēr′l′môn′
Tolmezzo, tōl-mĕt′sō
Tomasof (*or* Tomaszow), tô-mä′sōôf
Tongres, tôn′gr′
Tourcoing, tōōr′kwăn′
Tournay (*or* Tournai), tōōr′nā′
Traubach, trou′bäx
Trenchiennes, träx′shyĕn′
Trebizond, trĕb′ĭ-zŏnd′
Tregnano, trā-nyä′nō
Trélon, trā′lôn′
Triaucourt, trē′ō′kōōr′
Treviso, trā-vē′zō
Trieste (*or* Triest), trē-ĕst′
Trieux, trē′ū′
Trouche, La, lä′ trōōsh′
Turkheim, tōōrk′hīm

Überstrasse, ü′bĕr-shträs′ē
Udine, ōō′dē-nā
Ugny, ü′nyē′
Umago, ōō-mä′gō
Unie (*or* Ünich), ü-nē′ē
Urbach, ōōr′bäx
Urbeis, ōōr′bīs
Urfa, ōōr′fä′
Urmatt, ōōr′mät
Urmiah (*or* Urmia, Urumiah), ōōr′mē′ä
Urrel, ōōr′ĕl
Uruffe, ü′rüf′
Üsküp (*or* Üsküb, Skoplje), üs-küp′

Vacquerie, vä′kĕ-rē′
Vagney, vä′nyē′
Valenciennes, vä′lăn′syĕn′
Valhey, väl′ē′
Valjevo (*or* Valyevo), väl′yä-vō
Valmerangen, väl′mĕ-räng′ĕn
Valmy, väl′mē′
Vance, vänss
Vancouleurs, văn′kōō′lûr′
Vandières, văn′dyâr′
Vannes, văn
Vardar (river), vär′där′
Varennes-en-Argonne, vä′rĕn′-zăn′-är′gŏn′
Vaucourt, vō′kōōr′
Vaudemont, vōd′môn′
Vaux, vō
Vécoux, vā′kōō′
Veglia, vā′lyä
Velving, fĭ′lfĭng
Velaines, vē-lān′
Velasnes, vē-lăn′
Vellerois, vĕl′rwä′
Vellescot, vĕl′skō′
Vendêe, văn′dā′
Vendegies, vănd′zhē′
Vendin, văn′dăn′
Venezia (*or* Venice), vā-nĕt′syä
Venice (*or* Venezia), vĕn′ĭs
Vennezey, vĕn′zē′
Ventron, văn′trôn′
Verdenal, vĕrd′nāl′
Verdun, vĕr′dŭn′
Vermand, vĕr′măn′
Verneuil, vĕr′nû′y′
Verona, vĕ-rō′ná; *It.* vā-rō′nä
Versailles, vĕr′sā′y′; *Eng.* vĕr-sālz′
Verviers, vĕr′vyâr′
Vervins, vĕr′văn′
Verzy, vĕr′zē′
Viaden, vē′ä-dĕn
Vicenza, vē-chĕnt′sä
Vigneulles, vē′nyül′
Villafranca, vēl′lä-fräŋ′kä
Villemontoire, vēl′môn′twär′
Villers-Bretonneux, vē′lâr′-brē-tô′nû′
Villers-Cotterets, vē′lâr′-kô′tē-rē′
Villers-la-Ville, vē′lâr′-lä′-vēl′
Villerupt, vēl′rüp′
Villiers, vē′yā′
Vilvorde, vēl′vôrd′
Vimy, vē′mē′
Vincey, văn′sē′
Vireux, vē′rû′
Vistula (*or* Weichsel), vĭs′tû-lä
Vitrimont, vē′trē′môn′
Vitry-en-Artois, vē′trē′-ăn′-är′twä′
Vitry-le-François, vē′trē′-lĕ-frän′swä′
Vittorio, vēt-tō′rē-ō
Voivre, La, lä′ vwä′vr′
Volga, vōl′gä; *Russ.* vôl′gä
Volhynia, vōl-ĭn′ĭ-ä
Volta, vōl′tä
Voorde, vōr′dĕ
Vosges, vōzh
Vottem, vŏt′ĕm
Vouziers, vōō′zyâr′
Vy-les-Lure, vē′-lā′-lür′

Wahlerscheid, vä′lĕs-shīt′
Walcourt, väl′kōōr′

Walheim, väl'hīm
Wallers, vä'lĕr'
Wallendorf, väl'ĕn-dôrf
Wancennes, vän'sĕn'
Wanlin, vän'lĭn'
Wardin, vär'dĭn'
Warta (*or* Warthe), vär'tä
Warsie, vär'zē'
Wasigny, vä'zē'nyē'
Wasmes, vĭm
Wasserbillig, vĭs'ĕr-bĭl'ĭx
Wassigny, vä'sē'nyē'
Waterloo, wô'tĕr-lōō'; *Du.* wä'tĕr-lō'
Watigny vä'tē'nyē'
Watweiler, vät'vī-lĕr
Wavre, vä'v'r'
Wavrin, vä'vrĭn'
Waxweiler, vĭks'vī-lĕr
Weerde, wĭr'dē
Weert, wĭrt
Wehingen, vā'hĭng-ĕn
Weichsel (*or* Vistula), vĭk'sĕl
Weismes, vīs'mĕs
Weiten, vī'tĕn
Weitersweller, vī'tĕrs-vī'lĕr
Wembach, vĕm'bäx
Werlaing, vĕr'lān'
Wervicq, vĕr'vĭk'
Wesselberg, vĭ'zĕl-bĕrx
Wetteren, wĕt'ĕr-ĕn
Wiltzia, vē'brĭn'
Wignehies, vēn'yĕ-ē'
Wiltz, vēlts
Wintzenheim, vĭnt'sĕn-hīm
Wiserne, vē'zĭrn'
Woel, wōōl
Woëvre, wō'ē'v'r'
Woippy, voi'pē
Wolmeringen, vōl'mĕr-ĭng'ĕn
Woluwe-Saint-Lambert, wōl'ä-wē-sănt-lăm'bĕrt
Wörth, vürt
Wurzelen, vür'zē-lĕn

Xammes, zăm
Xaronval, zä'rôn'vāl'
Xertigny, zĕr'tē'nyē'
Xivremcourt, zē'rôn'kōōr'
Xivry, zē'vrē'
Xures, zür

Yasny (*or* Jasny), yäs'ē
Ypres, ē'pr'
Yser (river), ē'zĕr'
Yvoir, ē'vwär'

Zabern, tsä'bĕrn
Zamosk (*or* Zamość), zä'môshch
Zeebrugge, tsā'brōōg'ē
Zellenburg, tsĕl'ĕn-bōōrx
Zirknitz, tsĭrk'nĭts
Zittau, tsĭt'ou
Zlocmów, zlô'chôf
Zweibrücken, tsvī'brük'ĕn

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